

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For JUNE, 1789.

The Four Gospels, translated from the Greek. With preliminary Dissertations, and Notes Critical and Explanatory. By George Campbell, D. D. F. R. S. Edinburgh. In Two Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell.

WHILE the remains of every ancient author are brought forward to public view in our own language, with the formidable train of various readings and notes; while each succeeding translator boasts of superior merit, of closer fidelity, or a more fascinating elegance, the Old and New Testament have not obtained their share of philological enquiry. The reputed incorruptibility of the Hebrew text, for a time, kept the prying critic at a distance; and an equally groundless fear of undermining the real foundations of religion, by rejecting and changing words and particles, confined the attempts of the Greek philologist in an awful obscurity. In the former instance, the labours of Dr. Kennicott have contributed to collect a mass of useful information, which Dr. Geddes probably will soon bring within the reach of the unlearned reader. In the latter, Mill and Wetstein, critics of very different and almost opposite dispositions, have assisted Dr. Campbell in his present very useful attempt. Those who fear that religion may be from danger in this host of contending critics, and in the variety of their changes, should recollect, as our author has well observed, that the same apprehensions have been excited in all the different æras when new versions have been attempted; but that these new translations have superseded former ones without realizing the suspicions. This was the case of the present Vulgate, the work of Jerom, which, notwithstanding the fears of the pious, is generally received, while the old Italic, which it displaced, is forgotten. In reality, these different attempts form the best support of Christianity, for whatever may be the varieties in the testimony of different witnesses, whatever the variation of manuscripts, and the construction of critics, nothing has occurred to change a tittle of the more important and the more essential points of

Vol. LXVII, June, 1789. D d Christianity.

Christianity. There cannot be a more pointed demonstration of its truth.

These two volumes have been the labour of near forty years, for from the year 1750 Dr. Campbell began to collect useful criticisms on the New Testament; and they have at last acquired their present bulk and importance. The first volume may be styled preparatory to the second, for it consists of twelve dissertations, designed to lay the foundation of our author's future labours, by explaining those circumstances which may enable the reader to understand and appreciate them. The second consists of a new translation of the Evangelists, with an introductory preface to each, and copious notes. The preface is chiefly designed to guard against those apprehensions which we have just hinted at, and contains also a little sober animadversion on the conduct of those who consider reason as the sovereign arbiter of what appertains to religion. Reason, as our author properly observes, is primarily the touchstone of evidence, and only entitled to examine and judge concerning the subject itself, when there is something in it which may serve as evidence. Dr. Campbell might, however, carry this argument farther, and say that, what we style reason, is in reality perception and judgment. Our perception is very limited with respect to many of those things which we know from phenomena to exist; and our judgment is only employed in deciding on the force of evidence, or in the comparison of objects apparently similar. Reasoning, particularly that purest abstract kind, which is employed in mathematics, is little more than ascertaining the relation of things which we perceive; and we find concealed relations, by substituting those which are more obvious. It is certain, however, that the mathematician unravels instead of discovering; and that he finds nothing in his conclusion that was not in his theorem. The brightest discovery of sir Isaac Newton was only a comparative relation of the effects of two apparently different powers, which he found to be uniformly similar, and therefore probably the same.

The first Dissertation is on the language and idiom of the New Testament, the diversity of style, and the inspiration of the sacred writers. Dr. Campbell explains the situation of the new converts, and, in this way, accounts for the discriminating idiom of the New Testament, notwithstanding its perfect purity and elegance have been so warmly contended for. The idiom is that of the Syriac Hebrew; nearly the same with that of the Septuagint; but the lessons of our Saviour were undoubtedly delivered not in the Greek.

Greek, but in that dialect of the Hebrew. The difference of style in the writers, who were alike the organs of inspiration, is no objection to their having been inspired, since it has been long ago observed, and we have had occasion more than once to repeat the observation, that inspiration consists in the communication of new ideas, and not in the words, which are only the mode of communication.

The second Dissertation is on the causes of the differences of languages, of the changes produced on the Jewish language, and the chief difficulties in translating the sacred books. In this essay we find but little novelty: yet there are many remarks on words, apparently synonymous, which we would recommend to modern translators. The causes of the difficulties which a translator meets with are also properly enumerated; and, in this respect, Dr. Campbell's observations are so minute, and his criticisms so remote from the trite remarks which we often meet with, that it prejudices us much in favour of his version. We shall mention these difficulties more at length very soon.

The third Dissertation is on the style of the Gospels, and a defence of its perspicuity against the objections of P. Simon. Father Simon rose objections, either to establish the authority of the church, or rather, as we firmly believe, under this cover to disseminate infidelity. Dr. Campbell has, we think, taken more notice of him than he deserves. The perspicuity of the sacred writings depends on the simplicity of the design and sentiment, as well as the simple structure of the style. Even elegance, at least that kind which results from well chosen words, a natural, chaste, unaffected arrangement, and pleasing figures, may be commonly found in the narratives of the Evangelists.

In the fourth Essay, Dr. Campbell suggests some remarks of the right method of proceeding in the critical examination of the books of the New Testament. It is not easy to abridge these rules; but we shall beg leave to transcribe our author's very liberal judgment, respecting the authority of the fathers.

'I may add, that an unbounded respect for the fathers was, till the commencement of the sixteenth century, the prevalent sentiment in Christendom. Since that time their authority has declined apace, and is at present, in many places, totally annihilated.

'I own that, in my opinion, they of former generations were in one extreme, and we of the present are in another. The fathers are not entitled to our adoration, neither do they merit our contempt. If some of them were weak and credulous,

others of them were both learned and judicious. In what depends purely on reason and argument, we ought to treat them with the same impartiality we do the moderns, carefully weighing what is said, not who says it. In what depends on testimony, they are, in every case wherein no particular passion can be suspected to have swayed them, to be preferred before modern interpreters or annotators. I say not this to insinuate that we can rely more on their integrity, but to signify that many points were with them a subject of testimony, which, with modern critics, are matter merely of conjecture, or at most of abstruse and critical discussion. It is only from ancient authors, that those ancient usages, in other things as well as in language, can be discovered by us, which to them stood on the footing of matters of fact, whereof they could not be ignorant. Language, as has been often observed, is founded in use; and ancient use, like all other ancient facts, can be conveyed to us only by written testimony. Besides, that facts regarding the import of words (when controversy is out of the question) do not, like other facts, give scope to the passions to operate; and if misrepresented, they expose either the ignorance or the bad faith of the author to his contemporaries. I do not say, therefore, that we ought to confide in the verdict of the fathers as judges, but that we ought to give them an impartial hearing as, in many cases, the only competent witnesses. And every body must be sensible that the direct testimony of a plain man, in a matter which comes within the sphere of his knowledge, is more to be regarded than the subtle conjectures of an able scholar, who does not speak from knowledge, but gives the conclusions he has drawn from his own precarious reasonings, or from those of others."

The analogy of faith and etymology of words should, in Dr. Campbell's opinion, have a very inconsiderable, and, at best, a subordinate share in the critical examination.

The three following Dissertations are on the proper version of some particular words, the differences of some words apparently synonymous, and the true import of some titles of honour in the New Testament. It is impossible to follow our author minutely in these inconsiderable philological distinctions, where, at times, he seems to 'consider too curiously.' We shall, however, transcribe one passage, that contains the substance of his remarks on *Κυριος* and *Διδασκαλος*, which he contends should signify, very nearly in modern language, *Sir* and *Doctor*.

'Now, from the foregoing observations, it appears that the name *διδασκαλος*, as being nearly equivalent in import to the appellation *rabbi*, for which it has been substituted by the Evangelist, may be fitly expressed, either by the English term *doctor*, or by the Syriac *rabbi*, which is now so much naturalised amongst

amongst us, that its meaning, as a Jewish title of literary honour, can hardly be mistaken. In the addresses made to our Lord in his life time, the Syriac term is surely preferable; the English word, though very apposite in respect of its origin, and ordinary acceptation, has considerably sunk in its value, in consequence of the slight manner wherein we are accustomed to hear it applied. But we all know that *rabbi* among the Jews of that age was a title in the highest degree respectful, and on that account interdicted by their master, even to the apostles themselves. It is also the word by which *διδασκαλος* is commonly rendered in the Syriac version of the New Testament, justly held the most respectable of all the translations extant, as being both the oldest, and written in a language not materially different from that spoken by our Lord and his apostles. The difference appears not to be greater (if so great) than that which we observe between the Attic and the Ionic dialects in Greek. But when *διδασκαλος* is construed with other words, which either limit or appropriate it, we commonly judge it better to render it *teacher*, according to the simple and primitive signification of the word. In such cases it is probable, that the writer alludes merely to what is usually implied in the Greek term. So much for the import of *rabbi*, or *διδασκαλος*, in the New Testament.

Now, when we compare the titles *kyrios* and *didascalos* together, in respect of the Jewish use and application of them, we find several remarkable differences between them. From our modes of thinking we should be apt to conclude, that the former of these appellations would be much the more honourable of the two. Yet this is far from holding generally, though, in particular cases, it no doubt does. In regard to the term *kyrios*, I observed formerly, that as it originally signified *master*, as opposed to servant, it retained in that nation, in our Saviour's time, so much of its primitive meaning, as to be always understood to imply an acknowledged inferiority in the person who gave it, to him to whom it was given. Civility might lead a man to give it to his equal. But to give it to one who, either in the order of nature, or by human conventions, was considered as inferior and subordinate, would have looked more like an insult than like a compliment. Hence it must be regarded as a term purely relative, which derived its value solely from the dignity of the person who seriously bestowed it. To be entitled to this compellation from a monarch neither tributary nor dependent, denoted him who received it to be superior to human. But no useful citizen was so low as not to be entitled to this mark of respect from a common beggar. And, as its value in every instance depended solely on the dignity of the giver, it might be either the most honourable title that could be conferred, or the most insignificant. The use of the title *rabbi*, *didascalos*, or *doctor*, was in this respect, totally different. As it was understood to express not relation, but certain permanent qualifications in the person who received it,

they did not consider it as a matter of courtesy, but as a matter of right. It was not relative but absolute. The same person did not (as was the case of *kyrios*) consider himself as obliged to give it to one, and entitled to receive it from another. Whoever had this literary degree conferred on him, was entitled to receive the honourable compellation equally from all persons, superiors, inferiors, and equals. And we need not doubt that this vainglorious race would brand with the ignominious character of rusticity all who withheld it.

In other respects, he would render *το ευαγγελιον*, a message, glad tidings, or good news, *η καινη διαθηκη*, the new covenant, *ο Χριστος*, is, he thinks, a cognomen to distinguish our Saviour, which in time was used absolutely: *Ιησος*, was a common appellation, *Αδης* and *γεεννα* are distinguished as the habitation of souls, or hell in the old signification of the word, that is, a covered place, and the place of punishment for wicked souls: the former he would translate *hades*; but perhaps we use the word *grave* in similar circumstances pretty accurately. *Διαβολος*, is the devil, or satan, *κατ' εξοκην*; *δαιμων* a spirit, or demon, and *δαιμονιον*, the diminutive of *δαιμων*. Dr. Campbell thinks that the demoniacs were really possessed, and not, as Dr. Farmer supposes, as well as Dr. Mead before him, persons afflicted with disease. *μετανοω*, and *μεταμελομαι*, are distinguished as signifying to reform, to change the conduct in consequence of repentance, and the mere feeling of contrition without the amendment. *Αγιος* is holy and venerable; but *οσιος*, its reputed synonym, our author would translate, when it respects God, pious; but when it regards the disposition of God towards men, gracious or merciful.

The eighth Dissertation contains observations on the manner of rendering some words which have not perfectly corresponding ones in modern languages: these are weights, measures, or coins; rites, festivals, or sects; and dress, judicatories, or offices. Of the coins our author makes a very proper distinction: either where the value is essential to the sense, or where it is a general denomination. In this difficulty he examines the different methods of authors; but we do not always approve of his decisions. In the first instance, the English sum nearest to that proposed, when the different states of society are considered, should have been adopted: in the other, any general sum or measure might have been the standard. In the other circumstances our author decides with great judgment and propriety: in general, he prefers using the original terms, except where the context may be elucidated by its meaning or its explanation.

Some terms, as mystery, blasphemy, schism, and heresy, have

have been Anglicised from the original; but Dr. Campbell enquires whether their present meaning be really the same with that of the original words. The change undoubtedly results from the different meaning applied, in succeeding ages, to these adopted terms. *Mystery*, with us, signifies any thing incomprehensible: it was originally a term relative to some doctrine, or some fact, which was formerly a secret, or some type which was then elucidated. *Blasphemy* was once only slander, accusation, or railing, and it still continues to be so in different parts of the New Testament; it was afterwards limited in its meaning, and included only reproaches against God: if we have in modern and more licentious conversation brought it back to its first more general import, we fear it is not in consequence of critical enquiry, or an increasing veneration for the deity. *Schism* was originally a separation of any kind, which destroyed, in the slightest degree, that harmony and coincidence which should distinguish a well regulated whole. For what it has since been, we may refer to the various polemics. *Heresy*, *Aiswris*, in its former acceptation, denoted sect, party, or class, whether of Christianity, or of the opposers of Christ.

The tenth Dissertation contains remarks on the chief things to be attended in translating the New Testament, with a comparative view of the opposite conduct of different translators. He pays due tribute to the harsh exactness of Arias Montanus; to the unequal, but generally correct version of Jerom (at least in a great measure of Jerom), styled the Vulgate; to the elegant and finical, but essentially exact Castalio, and to the more servile Beza. The observations on what a translator should attend to are extremely just and useful.

Dr. Campbell then comes more nearly to his own work, and examines what regard ought to be paid to former translators, particularly the authors of the Latin Vulgate, and the common English translation.

'In the former Dissertation, he observes, I took occasion to consider what are the chief things to be attended to by every translator, but more especially a translator of holy writ. They appeared to be the three following; first, to give a just and clear representation of the sense of his original; secondly, to convey into his version as much of his author's spirit and manner as the genius of the language, which he writes, will admit; thirdly, as far as may be in a consistency with the two other ends, to express himself with purity in the language of the version. If these be the principal objects, as, in my opinion, they are; they will supply us with a good rule for determining the precise degree of regard which is due to former translators of reputation, whose works may have had influence

sufficient to give a currency to the terms and phrases they have adopted. When the terms and phrases employed by former interpreters are well adapted for conveying the sense of the author, when they are also suited to his manner, and do no such violence to the idiom of the language into which they are transferred, as is incompatible with propriety and perspicuity, they are justly preferred to other words equally expressive and proper, but which, not having been used by former interpreters of name, are not current in that application. This, in my opinion, is the furthest we can go, without making greater account of translations than of the original, and showing more respect to the words and idioms of fallible men, than to the instructions given by the unerring spirit of God.

We have selected these words as a proper view of our author's design; but, in the Dissertation before us, he examines at length the real merit of the Vulgate, in opposition to father Simon, who extols it with great intemperance, while he follows, with little consistency, a very different method in his own version; and he points out, with equal clearness and impartiality, the regard due, on the foundation of his former system, to the English translators. In his particular remarks he seems a little too minute, and occasionally a little too fastidious in his rejection of old words, which time and their situation have rendered in some degree sacred. In the changes which he proposes of words, whose meaning is at present different from what it was in the age of the translators, he is clear and accurate.

The last Dissertation contains a particular account of what Dr. Campbell has attempted in the translation and notes contained in the second volume. The essential qualities of this version are described at length. Our translator aims at clearness, simplicity, and accuracy; but where they are not compatible, simplicity must yield to perspicuity, and this must be united, so far as the circumstances will admit, with the most scrupulous accuracy. The readings of the original followed in his version are those of the best editions, corrected occasionally by the MSS. of the first authority. The various readings, that do not alter the text, or are not well supported, are omitted: the others are retained, or even admitted into the text, if their force or the evidence in support of their authenticity is sufficiently strong. A doubtful clause, which however does not affect the general sense, or is not in itself improbable, is retained between brackets. Dr. Campbell allows nothing to conjecture; and indeed it would open the door to much irregular and much unfounded alteration: we would only wish to tolerate it when the case is desperate, and neither sense nor meaning can be elicited from a passage without

out it. Proper names are rendered in conformity to the version of the Old Testament, except where discrimination is requisite and essential.

The distinction of chapters and verses is retained in the margin, for the sake of references, and to prevent the best Concordances from being useless in consulting this new version. The usual form is, however, in many respects inconvenient. The new division is into sections and paragraphs: each section is, on an average, equal to two chapters; and each paragraph is determined by the sense. The elliptical words supplied are included in crotchets; and the narrative is distinguished from the interlocutory part by Italics, for reasons which, on the whole, do not, we think, even counterbalance the bad effect of its appearance. In the side margin, besides the old division into chapters and verses, the parallel passages in scripture are added: at the foot of the page are the short explanations, which do not require criticism or argument, for notes of that kind are added at the end, and they are either explanatory or philological. Scholastic disputes, and some peculiarly delicate difficulties, our author purposes to avoid.

Such is nearly the plan of Dr. Campbell; and these are the observations which he considers as preparatory to his translation. We have followed him with care, because an attempt of this kind deserves a very particular attention, and because it seems to be our author's due, on account of the judgment, the learning, and the abilities displayed in every part of it. He is, perhaps, at times, a little too explicit, a little too copious in illustration: his remarks have occasionally too much minuteness, and a delicacy almost amounting in some instances to fastidiousness; but, on the whole, we have not for a long time met with a work of biblical criticism, in which we can find so little to blame, and so much to commend. The second volume we shall resume very soon.

A general System of Chemistry, theoretical and practical. Digested and arranged, with a particular View to its Application to the Arts. Taken chiefly from the German of M. Wiegleb. By C. R. Hopson, M. D. 4to. 1l. 7s. in Boards. Robinsons.

DR. Hopson has transmuted Wiegleb's Chemistry, though he has not turned the whole of it into gold. The original German work contained some chemical theory, and a short system of natural history. In its room, a Dissertation on specific Heat is added, by M. Gadolin, and a short account of the

the different airs, taken with little change from Fourcroy's *Elements of Chemistry*. Much of the elementary chemistry is supplied by the editor; and his theory rests on the basis of that which he published in 1781, of which we gave some account in our LIII^d volume, p. 78: his opinion then was, and it continues unchanged, that fire is a substance compounded of light and heat, which are generally quiescent, but evident to the senses during their separation. This system, which is not now very uncommon, our author claims, as well as that of the composition of acids, though we do not find that the latter was ever published. He seems to have suppressed it, because his system was not complete, from his still wanting information respecting the aerial acid: this he has, he thinks, found in Mr. Cavendish's paper in the seventy-fourth volume of the *Philosophical Transactions*, and he calls its principle the vegetable or organic principle, from whose union with pure air the aerial acid is formed. This is pretty exactly the carbonic acid of M. Lavoisier; but this system is, in our opinion, still encumbered with doubts and difficulties: indeed we think it untenable.

This work is divided into two parts, pure, or as we have called it, *Elementary Chemistry*, which contains what has usually been styled the *Elements of the Science*; and *Mixed Chemistry*; or its application to various arts, which fills the largest, and is the most important part of the work; *Economical Chemistry*, and *Philosophical Chemistry*, or what the editor, to whom we are chiefly indebted for it, chuses more modestly to style *Fragments of Philosophical Chemistry*, containing what relates to inflammation and combustion: the composition of water, for our author continues to believe this falling system; and the various impregnations of mineral waters, form different parts of the mixed chemistry.

Among the different articles in the first part we may distinguish professor Gadolin's *Dissertation on Heat*, which contains the principal doctrines on the subject, with a very excellent and extensive table of the capacities of heat discovered in different bodies, either by Dr. Irvine and Mr. Kirwan, Dr. Crawford, professor Willeke, M. Lavoisier, or himself. The description of chemical instruments, and of the general operations of chemistry, are particularly full and exact. On the whole, this is a general and comprehensive view of the elements of the science in its present state; but deformed by a nomenclature harsh and disagreeable, though drawn from the fountains (*parce detorta*) of Greece. Much employment is found for fire: it is the universal *menstruum* and general principle

ciple of fluidity; and this opinion is not very unlike that of M. de Luc, in his account of the formation of vapours.

The *Chemia Applicata* comprehends the operations on salts; but we will give a little specimen of our author's language. It is divided we say into *Halurgy*, the operations performed on salts; *Lithurgy*, the operations on earths and stones; *Metallurgy*, what relates to the employment of metals; *Zymotechny*, the chemistry of fermenting bodies; *Phlogurgy*, the operations with inflammable bodies; to which are added those processes which affect the appearance of bodies, by changing their surfaces. Dr. Hopson's language we shall also give a specimen of. From *Σποδες*, *ashes*, he calls the vegetable alkali, *spodium*; and we have *spodium aerocraticum*, aerated alkali; *tartarus spodatus*, cream of tartar; *spodic sulphurocrate*, phlogisticated alkali, &c. The vitriolic acid is *vitrioloxys*, and when phlogisticated, *sulphuroxis*; its neutrals, *vitriola* and *sulphurocratia*; when super-acidulated, *vitrioloxium* and *sulphuroxium*; when the alkali predominates, *oxy-spodium*. Our author proceeds systematically; but, when we see *galamelitocratum*, *epoxycratium*, *zoolythoxium*, *oxy-murioecites*, and such words, calculated almost for the pronunciation of a Pole or an Algonquin, we cannot avoid disapproving of the whole system.

Under the first class, the processes performed on salts, there is a very full and correct account of all the acids, so far as they have been hitherto known, or their compositions examined. Our author's acquaintance with the newest and most modern chemistry of the continent is very accurate and extensive. But, as we have been long employed in tracing improvements in this science, we see nothing which will perhaps appear very interesting. Among the salts also the alkalis occur, and they are described in all their varieties, and their different uses are explained with equal precision. If we select what our author has observed respecting the essential salts of vegetables, found in their ætherial oil, it is chiefly because the passage is easily separated, and because the enquiry has not been sufficiently pursued.

‘ In conformity to such a number of observations, this peculiar genus of salt it probably to be ranked among those constituent parts of vegetables which have been long neglected. Its chief properties are as follow: 1. the smell and taste is mild, and in every respect resembles the body from which it has been obtained: 2. it has a crystalline form, which however is different in each species: 3. it fuses by heat, and is inflammable in the fire: 4. it is insoluble in cold, but soluble in hot water: 5. it is equally difficult of solution in spirit of wine: 6. likewise in ethereal and expressed oils: 7. after cooling, it crystal-

lises

fixes afresh in whatever liquor it is dissolved. If these crystals were camphor, they ought to be totally insoluble in water, but easily and copiously soluble in spirit of wine and oils, and even to remain united with small portions of them; but as they exhibit quite the contrary appearances in every respect, are soluble in boiling water, unite with difficulty, and that only in a small quantity, with spirit of wine and oils, and moreover are quickly separated afresh from them by crystallization; I apprehend these reasons are sufficiently cogent to induce one to consider crystals endowed with such properties, as a peculiar kind of oily inflammable salts. I do not, however, pretend, on this account, to deny the possibility of the existence of different kinds of vegetables which may contain real camphor; in this case it must necessarily be distinctly discriminated from the saline crystals above mentioned, by the requisite properties. The flowers of benzoe probably belong to this same class; but as they have already been mentioned before among the acid salts on account of their being more evidently of an acid nature, I pass over them here.

These salts are undoubtedly, as our author alledges, enveloped in the oil, and evolved rather than formed.

The class of earths, comprehending the calcareous, the barytic, the magnesian, or, as Dr. Hopson chuses to style it, the murioecic, the argillaceous, or aluminic, and the siliceous, are also described with great precision. The origin of these earths M. Wiegand leaves unexplained, and, with great judgment, only glances at the uncertain suggestions of some authors, who would derive one from the other. The origin of clay from lavas, and sometimes from sand-stones mixed with the exuviae of shell-fish; and of the growan clay, from the decomposition of granite, is all that we can perceive with tolerable distinctness, though much uncertainty remains even on these subjects, and what we have styled distinctness is rather a little less than the usual obscurity. In this class we have accounts of the different porcelains, and the leading principles of the manufacture, so far as they can be drawn from the obscurity in which the processes are concealed. It is a curious fact, not generally known, that the art of making porcelain in Europe, originated from the chimerical design of making gold about the year 1700. Bottger in endeavouring to make some unusually compact and useful crucibles for alchemical purposes, first discovered it; and his pottery was made at Dresden of a brownish red colour: the first white porcelain was made in the same place in 1709. The excellency of the Dresden porcelain our author seems to attribute to the very peculiar clay of Saxony, which is very brittle, meagre (not unctuous), very white, and mixed with many micaceous

ous particles. We have usually heard that it was owing to the experiments of Pott, who, in his *Lithogenesie*, speaks of the effects of the union of different earths, and seems to conceal, with a guarded caution, what relates to porcelain, though it is well known that this was the object to which his attention was chiefly directed. The nature of the *perunse*, the second ingredient in the Chinese porcelain, is left in uncertainty, though we apprehend it is a clay, with some proportion of very fine quartz particles. It has been called a ponderous earth, a gypseous spar, or a feld spar. Indeed, the Chinese are so cautious, that there is great reason to doubt if we have received true specimens of the earth which they employ. The nature of the precious stones is explained from the writings of the best chemists; and the earth of the diamond, said to be very different from either of the other kinds known, is shortly hinted at. As the *marmor metallicum* is common, we shall add the method of separating the pure spar, that it may be combined with muratic acid.

‘When barytes is wanted in a pure state, the heavy spar must be reduced to a fine powder, and two ounces, for example, must be mixed with two and a half or three ounces of purified alkali, and urged with a read heat in a covered crucible for the space of an hour. The mass is then to be triturated to powder, and boiled repeatedly with water, till there is not the least vestige of a saline taste to be perceived. From this mixture, after exsiccation, I have obtained an ounce and a half and two scruples of powder. If it be required to be still purer, after being reduced to a finer powder, four or five ounces of weak nitrous acid must be poured on it, till no more effervescence is perceived. It appears in this operation as if the nitrous acid had not dissolved much of the earth; since a considerable quantity of earth remains undissolved at the bottom of the vessel. We must not however suffer ourselves to be deceived by appearances; but four times the quantity of distilled water must be added, and the glass set in a warm place, the clear liquor decanted, and fresh water added, when it will be found that the whole has been dissolved to within about half a drachm or two scruples. From this solution, the pure earth may now be either precipitated with salt of tartar or volatile alkali, or evaporated and suffered to crystallize, which it easily does.’

In basalties he thinks there are no marks of *vitreous* fusion, and that, consequently, they could not have originated from *igneous* fusion; but lava is often in fusion without being vitrified: we meet with very little glassy lava, except from Hecla. Granite is, he thinks, a heterogeneous mass, agglutinated by the interposition of water; and not, as Saussure supposed, a mass of crystals from the earth's having been previously

previously dissolved. Perhaps our author's opinion is less encumbered with difficulties; it is at least evident that it is not the effect of fire, and that the different ingredients were not softened in the operation by which they were cemented.

The next chapter relates to the chemistry of glass, the effect of the union of earths and salts; but our author does not seem to be intimately acquainted with the practices of the workmen, particularly in England, where the best glass is undoubtedly made. Let us select, lest it should escape, a probable etymology of magnesia. Manganese was called by the ancients *magnes*, from its resemblance to the magnet; but, as it did not attract iron, it was styled the female magnet—*magnesia*. When the earth of magnesia was discovered, it had unaccountably the same name, and it was called *magnesia alba*, in opposition to the *magnesia nigra*, which, to prevent confusion, lost its original appellation, and was changed to *manganese*. In the passage in Pliny, which our author in a note proposes to amend, we think he is less successful—*Alteram naturam magnetis esse, attrahere in se liquorem vitri*. He would read *livorem*, and draw an inference from it, that the ancients were acquainted with the property of manganese to destroy the colour of glass; but it was evident that Pliny alluded to the real magnet, and not the female magnesia, because he adds, ‘*ut ferrum*.’ We suspect the annotator quoted from memory, as the form of the sentence is somewhat, though not essentially in any other respect, different from that which we have transcribed. The phenomenon of prince Rupert's drops he explains from the sudden escape of rarefied air, and probably of the matter of fire, confined by the sudden congelation of the external coat. If we mistake not, sir Isaac Newton gave, long since, a similar explanation.

The chemistry of metals is more extensive and more important. Every part of the doctrine of assaying, the separation of ores, and of amalgamation, is explained very satisfactorily. The uses of the different metals are detailed more concisely; but it is not easy to extract any part which may be interesting, because we cannot ascertain what is before known. The preparation of Damascus steel, we suspect, will be generally new and curious.

* The famous Damascus steel is prepared by art, in the following manner: eight plates of steel are forged, a foot long, an inch broad, and a line thick, five plates of soft iron, and four others of brittle iron, are then made of the same thickness, length and breadth, as the former, which are put together in the following manner: first, a plate of soft iron is laid down, upon this one of steel, on this one of brittle iron, then another
of

of steel, upon this again another of soft iron, upon this one of steel, and so on to the seventeenth plate, which again is of soft iron. This bundle is then taken up and carried to the fire by means of a pair of crooked tongs, and welded firmly together, with a moderate red heat only; stretched in the form of a square, and somewhat planished. It is next brought to a white heat, and, one end of it being put into a stout vice, and the other laid hold of with a strong pair of tongs, twisted round as hard as possible, so as to take the form of a screw; upon this it is planished, hammered down to the breadth of eight or nine lines and from three to four in thickness, and cut into two equal parts, that serve as a case or cover. A plate of Styrian steel is then cut, of the thickness of two lines, and of a length and breadth equal to that of the case; this steel ought however to be selected out with great care, so that it shall be pure and good. This plate of steel is now put between the two covers, and in this situation it is carried to the fire with a pair of tongs, and stretched to such thickness as the instrument that is to be made of it requires. All this having been literally observed, you will have the true Damascus ware, the steel-plate in the middle of which will compose the edge of the instrument, which, in consequence of a good hardening being given to it, will acquire an equable hardness. Now as the sheath or covering on each side consists of seventeen plates, which united, form thirty-four plates intertwined with each other; they will impart to the instrument a toughness and durability, so as to prevent it from being broken by the greatest force. This artificial steel is distinguishable from the native by its veins being more easily seen, as well as by the circumstance that none of them appear on the edge of the instrument, which on the contrary are every where visible in native steel.

Two parts of tin and one of bismuth form *tutenag*: ten ounces of lead, six of bismuth, and four drachms of regulus of antimony, form a hard close-grained metal, as white as silver. The prejudice against the use of pins, on account of their white colour, which is attributed to mercury, is very ill-founded. The covering is of tin; and we are informed that if copper and tin are boiled together in a solution of tartar, or of tartar, alum, and salt, the copper will acquire a thin coating from the tin. Japanese copper is said to contain a portion of lead: the Chinese metal, called *packsong*, is composed of copper, nickel, and zinc. The account of the calces of metals chiefly relates to their medicinal use: we perceive nothing in it very new or interesting.

The chemistry of fermentation does not contain a philosophical description of the process, for this occurs in the first part, but an account of the management of different wines and beers. Our author gives us very good descriptions of
meliorating

meliorating the thin German wines, which are harsh and unmanageable, as well as of imparting to them the flavour of different valuable French wines, by the addition of the concentrated must of these wines, concentrated not by evaporation, but by freezing. The melioration, by means of lead, he speaks of with a proper detestation, and he tells us that it was first publicly described in a work published at Frankfort, in 1610. The management of beers is well explained, and the defects, from neglect in different parts of the process, properly, but shortly pointed out. When he tells us that brewing is intended 'to prepare a sweet mucilaginous decoction of malt and hops, a pure, *metallic*, vinous, and wholesome beverage,' we are a little startled, especially as the list of errata does not assist us; and we have introduced this passage as a remark, that not one tenth of the errors are really pointed out in the list.

The following note contains a fact that is new and may be useful.

'M. Hoffman, of Leer in East Friesland, took six pounds of the fresh roots of couch, or dog's grass, and after cutting them in pieces and bruising them, made a mash of them with boiling water. This he fermented with two ounces of yeast, and when the fermentation was finished, put the liquor into an alembic, and drew off a watery spirit from it, which, after being rectified, produced four ounces of a liquor as strong as common malt spirit, and of a much more agreeable flavour. He therefore with great justice recommends this weed, which may be had, if not for nothing, at least for the expence of digging it out of the ground, to the notice of the distillers, as a decoction of it may serve for cooling their mash, and thus greatly increasing the quantity of their spirit. Of a decoction of these roots, with a little yeast and hops, he likewise made a tolerably palatable beer, which kept good for three months. Perhaps treacle, in the proportion of half a pound to a gallon, would be no useless addition. A composition of this kind too might serve for making vinegar, equal in goodness to the common malt vinegar used in this country, and 100 per cent. cheaper. This root, which is now only used for manure, for which purpose it is burned, contains a large quantity of saccharine matter. From three ounces of the expressed juice, M. Hoffman obtained two drachms and thirty-three grains of fine crystallized saccharine acid. In some parts of Sweden, in a scarcity of corn, they make these roots into bread.'

Even milk, as has now been repeatedly tried, may be brought into the vinous fermentation: the process, in which constant agitation is required, seems to depend on the buty-raceous part, which is at first separated, being again forced

to unite with the whey. The latter runs readily into the acetous fermentation; but when united, the vinous, as usual, precedes. The preparation of different vinegars is also well described; as well as the fermenting process by which bread is prepared. The putrefactive fermentation is afterwards described. In the notes Dr. Hopson mentions the spontaneous fermentation in new hay; and the acetous fermentation in the preparation of four krout. We had formerly occasion to remark, and one of the editor's notes confirms it, that the acids of tartar, apples, sugar, wood-sorrel, and of vinegar, differ only in having different proportions of their vegetable oil or phlogiston. It is since found that with this loss they have acquired pure air in the same order and proportion, and that the aerial acid may be added after the vinegar, justifying an observation that we made many years since in this journal, that fixed air would perhaps be found to be some common substance in disguise, and probably the acetous acid.

Our author next treats of inflammables; and thinks that there is but one inflammable spirit in nature, though it may be obtained from many different bodies. This is spirit of wine, whose composition he explains, and he denies that it contains any vegetable acid. He next considers oils, and gives a very copious and accurate table of the quantities obtained by different chemists from a given quantity of each vegetable. From every odorous vegetable he thinks we could procure oil if we employed a sufficient quantity. The next object is the different kinds of æther; and these are the productions from the three mineral acids; as well as the lignic, the oxalyne, the acid of ants and of fat. Some very valuable experiments on the formation of different æthers are extracted from M. Dollfus's late work, which we could have wished a former correspondent had favoured us with: it was the article on which we requested a more particular information in our LXIVth volume, page 488. The editor thinks æthers are composed of the bases of the acids: it is more probable that they carry away the pure air of the acids, with a very small proportion of their bases, which, united to the spirit of wine, forms these volatile fluids. M. Weigleb proceeds to oils of different kinds, either unctuous, expressed, empyrenmatic, or animal, with their volatile productions in foot, and the more solid ones of charcoal. The last class of inflammable bodies is the sulphureous.

The chemical treatment of bodies, with respect to an alteration of their surfaces, comprehends the taking out spots, in which we suspect that M. Weigleb might be corrected and improved by many lady Bountifulls of the country, though

there are occasional observations of importance; the process of bleaching, in which he is not acquainted with the use of mineral acids, instead of sour milk; and of dying, where there is much imperfection, and some inaccuracies, particularly in dying scarlets. The blue vats are explained very properly. Staining is described with more accuracy, and the sympathetic inks are shortly examined. Printing on stuffs and linens, the preparation of colours, various varnishes, gildings, coppering, quicksilvering mirrors, preparation of false pearls, slimes, glues, cements, and folders, are explained, though often too concisely. The principles of these processes are however shown with sufficient accuracy.

The second book of the *Chemia Applicata* contains economical chemistry, in other words, rural œconomy, comprehending the tillage of fields, the culture of gardens, the management and breed of cattle. But, as our author affords nothing new or singularly interesting to an Englishman, we need not extend our article by pursuing him with exactness. The history of paper is curious, though its importance is not so great as to induce us to transcribe it.

Physical chemistry is defined to be the application of chemistry to explain natural phenomena. The object is undoubtedly important; but the arrangement is exceptionable. The first part, on phosphori and pyrophyri, is curious, and the history, as well as the properties and the different processes for making these uncommon inflammables, are well explained; but we see no reason for separating them from the other sulphurs. Phosphorus is undoubtedly a sulphur, whose ingredients are loosely combined, and consists of the animal acid and phlogiston. Dr. Hopson contends that it is the base of the animal acid only; yet we think its rapid combustion is not to be accounted for without the presence of pure air. M. Georgi's experiments on spontaneous inflammations are very curious: we can find room only for a very small part.

* The following remark of M. Georgi is of the greatest importance: in the drying of malt, and in roasting of other substances of a similar nature, the malt or other materials may take fire of themselves in a corner of the kiln, a long time after the operation is finished, and that even in the open air, and without giving any signs of accension, except a trifling degree of smoke, burn for a considerable time, and do a great deal of mischief. From all that has been mentioned, it appears, that the smaller kinds of grain, as well as flour, sawdust, and other minutely divided and inflammable substances, when taken in considerable quantities, and united with oily matters, are capable of taking fire of themselves under certain circumstances, in consequence of their being furcharged with inflammable particles,

ticles, as well as of an intestine motion and mutual action in their constituent parts, by which the inflammable particles are disengaged. This is certainly a very remarkable, and hitherto not sufficiently investigated property of many substances appertaining to the vegetable and animal kingdoms, the knowledge of which is very important for the farmer, the manufacturer, and artist.'

The preparation and theory of pulvis fulminans, aurum et argentum fulminans follow: the theory of M. Berthollet is the only one which seems to come near the truth; and this we have had occasion to explain.

Water, and the analysis of mineral waters, form the last part of this volume; but, except in the extracts from Dr. Bladh's experiments on the different gravity of the water of the sea, taken up in many different parts, we find nothing particularly curious. Tables of elective attraction, and others showing the proportion of ingredients in different compounds, are subjoined. Two copper-plates, representing the different chemical instruments, with a copious index, contribute to elucidate the subject, and to facilitate the reader's access to each part of the volume.

We ought not to conclude without acknowledging that this work contains many subjects of curiosity, and many useful hints and extracts. The English chemist may read or consult it with great advantage. If we were, however, to examine it as a system, the verdict would not be so favourable. The editor and the author differ in their theory, so that we find a frequent collision of sentiments even in the text, for much of it is supplied by Dr. Hopson: the notes and the text are in this way at variance. Even the editor, though he leans towards Lavoisier's system, occasionally deviates from it; and seems to speak its language with doubt and hesitation. Yet the whole is a valuable acquisition to English chemistry: the facts are correctly detailed; and, as a compilation, it is extensive and useful.

Original Anecdotes of Peter the Great, collected from the Conversation of several Persons of Distinction at Petersburg and Moscow. By Mr. Stæblin. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Murray.

AMONG kings, there are some splendid and some amiable characters: occasionally both are united, and the hero is combined with the father of his people, with the benevolent legislator and the friend of mankind. We dare not give this exaggerated eulogium to Peter, for, in some parts of it, we suspect, that he failed; but it is not easy to deny him the praise

of a steady, an unremitted attention to the exaltation of his kingdom; the continued and the best-founded happiness of his subjects. To himself, and his own conveniencies he was indifferent: the little that 'man wants below' was easily supplied, and the splendid pageantry of state was a burthen from which he generally escaped. The greatest men of the North have looked down with contempt on pomp and splendor; but they have adopted different means of avoiding it: Frederick turned his court into the head-quarters of a camp, or the private mansion of a philosopher: Peter kept up the state; but, with a contempt of grandeur, he usually put a puppet on the throne, to receive the honours due to the name of king, while he preserved his powers, applied them to the best purposes, and attended in his own court, as a vice-admiral or a major-general. Superior to adulation, he was addressed only in conversation and in writing, as Peter Alexiowitz; and the meanest of his subjects would be heard, if a letter or a complaint were preferred in these terms. Above praise, or arrogating the merit due to others, he could allow his memorial, requesting advancement in rank to be overlooked in favour of a more meritorious officer. If, in this step, the admiralty knew the emperor's wish, it reflects credit on his moderation: if they did not, they must have been well aware that he would not desire to rise on the ruins of superior merit. The following anecdote will however shew, that counsellors were not wanting, who could publicly oppose his designs, when they were inadvertently undertaken, and would have been finally injurious.

'When he began the canal of Ladoga, he ordered all the landholders of the governments of Novogorod and Peterburgh to send their peasants to work on it, and signed an ukase to that effect in full senate.

'Prince Jacob Feodowitsch Dolgoroukow, one of the principal senators, and a man in whom the czar reposed much confidence, was not present when the ordinance was registered, being employed that day on other business of the state.

'The following day the senate assembled, and was proceeding to the publication of the edict, when Dolgoroukow, who was ignorant of what had passed, made inquiry into the matter. The registers were presented to him, and he found therein an order to send the peasants of the governments of Novogorod and Peterburgh to dig the canal of Ladoga. "No," cried he, "this is not possible; representations must be made to the emperor, or these provinces, which have already suffered so much, will be ruined without resource."—After saying this, Dolgoroukow, transported by his zeal for the poor peasants, prepared to tear the ordinance. It was represented to him in vain, that it was too late to make any opposition, or to propose modifications, as the emperor had already signed it. Notwithstanding these reasons, his patriotism

Patriotism got the better of his prudence, and he tore the edict, to the great astonishment of the senate.

‘The whole assembly rose full of alarm, and asked him if he knew what he had done, what he exposed himself to, and the misfortunes that threatened him?—“Yes,” answered he, “and I will answer for it before God, the emperor, and my country.”

‘At this moment the czar made his appearance. Surprised at the exclamations he had heard, and to see the whole senate standing, he asked what all this signified?—The attorney-general trembled while he told him that the ordinance he had signed the day before had been torn to pieces by Dolgoroukow.—Peter turned to Dolgoroukow, and asked him, with much warmth, what had induced him to oppose his authority in so unheard-of a manner?—“My zeal for your honour, and the good of your subjects?” answered the intrepid senator. “Do not be angry, Peter Alexiewitsch, that I have too much confidence in your wisdom to think you wish, like Charles the Twelfth, to desolate your country. Your ordinance is inconsiderate, and you have not reflected on the situation of the two governments it regards. Do you not know that they have suffered more in the war than all the provinces of your empire together; that many of their inhabitants have perished; and are you unacquainted with the present miserable state of the people? What is there to hinder your taking a small number of men from each province to dig this canal, which is certainly necessary? The other provinces are more populous than the two in question, and can easily furnish you with labourers, or at least without suffering the same difficulties as the provinces of Novogorod and Peterburgh alone.—Besides, have you not Swedish prisoners enow to employ without oppressing your subjects with works like these?”

‘The czar listened to this remonstrance with great tranquillity, and, convinced of its propriety, turned towards the other senators—“Let the publication of the ukase be suspended,” said he:—“I will consider farther of this matter, and let you know my intentions.”—Here the affair dropped.

‘Peter took other means to cut the canal of Ladoga, and, without doubt, following the idea of Dolgoroukow, ordered some thousands of Swedish prisoners to work there, almost all of whom perished in that laborious and unhealthy employment.’

We have stepped on too fast, and with too little attention to method; but, like Sterne’s, our digressions are in some degree progressive. It may be necessary to observe, that M. Stæhlin had a department in the academy of Petersburg; he was tutor, and afterwards librarian to the great duke Feodorowitsch; and the anecdotes which he has collected, are authenticated by their internal evidence, and the names from whom they were received. The translation seems to be executed with great propriety and accuracy.

It is well known, that Peter Alexiowitz was born about the end of the last century, that he found his country in a state of barbarism, and that he, in a great measure, rescued it from the ignominy of this reproach. The means by which he effected it, have been treated with too much acrimony; and, as in some other instances, Peter, in unusual and peculiar circumstances, has been tried on statutes dictated in periods of refinement; he has been condemned on the enlightened customs of a cultivated æra. We have ourselves had occasion to say, that the men and treasure expended in founding a capital, in a marsh, on the Gulph of Finland, might have made him the first and most powerful monarch of Asia. This is true in the sense we urged it, as an abstract proposition; but the expediency of the attempt, while the Swedish Alexander was at the head of a highly disciplined army, whose enmity against Russia was rooted and hereditary, and the power of the crescent almost at its highest pitch, may well be questioned. Perhaps neither consideration influenced the czar. With his imagination full of the beneficial effects of commerce, and of a naval power, he went to Amsterdam, where he saw both in their highest perfection, and aimed only at making Petersburg as a city, another and the same: every future step justifies this explanation.

In his progress of civilization, it can scarcely be said, that he went too fast, for the foreigners, which he introduced, were designed to instruct the Russians, who were to supersede them. But so great was the difficulty of changing inveterate habits, that, till lately, the nation, like the earth, consisted of an enlightened and obscure hemisphere, of which the former portion consisted almost entirely of foreigners; within the last twenty years, the scene has changed; and probably within the next period of equal extent, a foreigner in a responsible situation will be uncommon. We cannot, however, accuse Peter of being, in any respect, inattentive to the prosperity of his kingdom; of inconstancy in his attachments; of unreasonable cruelty; of luxury, or of dissipation. He created a marine, an army, ordnance, manufactures, fine arts, sciences, and the foundation of all, a spirit of industry. This was the work of his own hands; and to this vast and extensive system, he sacrificed—an action that, in every view, must leave a stigma on his memory—he sacrificed his son.

These remarks, in a great degree dictated by the work before us, are not on that account foreign to our present object. We have already selected one anecdote of his forbearance: we shall transcribe a few others, either as they illustrate these observations, or throw some additional light on the emperor's character.

Peter

Peter disliked, as we have said, every species of pomp; and he did not disguise his sentiments on this subject, even in the courts he visited.—The king of England one day asked him how he liked London? “Very well,” answered the czar, “I am above all pleased to see the simplicity, neatness, and modesty that prevails in the dress of the richest nation in Europe.”

‘The sentiments of Frederick L. of Prussia were very different; according to his grandson Frederick II. he was more pleased than afflicted at the death of his wife, because her sumptuous funeral gave him an opportunity of gratifying his taste for ceremony and magnificence.

‘When he heard that Peter the Great intended to travel into France and Holland, he sent him the most pressing invitation to take Berlin in his way. At the same time he ordered preparations to be made for giving his illustrious guest the most brilliant reception and most superb entertainments; and though the czar expressly desired to be treated without ceremony, he would not alter his resolution. For this reason Peter so ordered his journey, that he entered Berlin at a very late hour, and alighted at a lodging prepared for him by his ambassador.

‘Soon after, Frederick sent the grand master of his ceremonies, and two of the gentlemen of his bedchamber, to compliment him on his arrival. The czar gave them to understand, that he should stay but a few days at Berlin, and that, if the king pleased, he would wait on him the following day about noon.

‘The next day, at nine o’clock, six of the handsomest court carriages, came to the czar’s lodgings, who had with him six young Russian noblemen. He had sent them to study at Berlin, and among them were prince Kourakin, since master of the horse, M. Bestusheff, afterwards count and high chancellor, and young Golofkin, son of the then high chancellor, who were chosen by the czar to accompany him to court.

‘The magnificent carriages waited for him and his attendants till noon, when the persons who brought them were informed that the czar was already with the king. At eleven o’clock he had slipped out of the back-door, and walked to the palace.

‘After the most friendly reception, the king, much surprised, asked him if it were true, that he had come on foot, and if he had not made use of the carriages he had sent, which had waited for several hours before his house?

‘The czar thanked him politely for his attention; “I have avoided them,” said he; “I am not accustomed to magnificence; dislike parade, and always walk about town on foot. It sometimes happens that I walk five times as far as I have done to-day.”

Peter made minutes of every intention, on any vacant piece of paper in his hand. The plan of the academy was presented to him; and he made, as usual, his remarks, in the margin.—At the end the following memoranda are found.

‘Jan. 23d. Mem. To procure good engineers and artillery officers from among those who served in the last war in Brabant—

to make inquiry at the office of reports relative to the progress made by the young nobility in their studies—to recollect the orders I have given to send young gentlemen to travel in foreign parts, and to inquire whether I have been obeyed, what number are already set off, what places they have visited, what they intend to learn, and what time is necessary for their purposes.

‘The office of reports must give an account of all these things to the senate, that so we may be enabled to judge of the degree of application of each youth, and of the progress he makes in the art or science to which he turns his attention. I will give directions that all these things be clearly detailed, and the account given when I go to the senate.’

‘Above all, care must be taken to chuse a proper place for the education of young people, and for their instruction in domestic œconomy.’

‘In the translation of books, it is necessary that the translator should be well versed in the art or science of which his author treats; for when he has no idea of the subject of the work, it is impossible for him to succeed. For this reason, all those who understand a language, but have no knowledge of the arts or sciences of which the book treats, must learn them; and *vice versa*.

‘This must be attended to by Russians, and persons of foreign extraction born in the country, or who, having settled in Russia at an early age, understand our tongue as well as their own; for it is always easier to translate a foreign language into our own, than to preserve a foreign idiom in translating from our mother tongue.’

‘The sciences in question are, mathematics, or at least that part that treats of spherical trigonometry; mechanics, anatomy, surgery, botany, civil and military architecture, hydraulics, &c.

‘I must send for workmen from Holland, learn to make potash from old casks, and procure a library for the instruction of others.’

The anger and passion of the czar were known to be terrible; but his easy placability is, perhaps, not so well known.

‘The czar had an apartment in his palace fitted up for his workshop, where turning lathes of every kind were placed, and where his master used to work likewise. This man, Andrew Nartoff, an able mechanic, and afterwards counsellor in the reign of the empress Anne, had a young apprentice much beloved by the czar, on account of his gaiety and address. Whenever they were at work together, and the emperor sat down to his lathe with his cap on, the boy had orders to take it off his head. One day, on an occasion of this kind, he took hold of the cap so hastily, that he seized a lock of hair with it, and put the czar to great pain. The furious monarch leaped from his seat, drew his hanger, ran after the lad, and would have killed him, if he had not made his escape and hid himself, so as to baffle all search. The angry czar quitted the workshop, and gave orders to seek the runaway; but all was in vain. The following day, when his anger

ger was over, he returned to his lathe, and only laughed at the awkwardness of the apprentice.—"The cursed boy," said he, "had no mercy on me; but he hurt me more than he intended; and I am very glad that his flight was quicker than my pursuit."

It will be easy to see, that notwithstanding Burnet's unfavourable representation of Peter, that he stands high in our esteem. The czar, while in England, was known to the bishop, and characterized by him, as a brute, without almost the semblance of humanity, and frequently intoxicated with brandy. But we can transcribe no more: we recommend this work as pleasing and instructive, from which it is more difficult to choose an extract, than to reject what would not appear interesting.

The Orations of Marcus Tullius Cicero against Caius Cornelius Verres. Translated from the Original. By James White, Esq. 4to. 18s. in Boards. Cadell.

FROM the spirit and freedom of Mr. White's language in the preface, we augured well respecting his success as a translator: we were not wholly deceived, for though he seems to walk in fetters; though his freedom and spirit are somewhat repressed, yet enough of each remains to establish his fame as a translator of no common rank.

' This says Mr. White, (the æra of the impeachment of Verres) is one of the most applauded periods in the life of Cicero. Throughout the impeachment and trial of Verres, he appears to have been wholly unmolested by that timidity which afterwards enfeebled and disgraced his operations. Here we behold him fearless and firm; an example of patient investigation, of persevering vigour, of impregnable integrity. His heart was not yet debauched, his courage not yet undermined by the enjoyment of power: he no sooner became a slave to the love of importance, than there seemed to be a lamentable revolution in his character. As his honours increased, his intrepidity diminished, and consequence and cowardice kept pace with each other. They who were envious of his credit and authority, and they who desired him for a partizan, perceived where he was vulnerable, where he was practicable, and conveyed through such channels as the turbulent times afforded, the bane of preferment and the poison of intimidation. A popular tumult was infallible: a cohort of the legionaries under arms could damp and discomfit the noblest efforts of his eloquence. He trembled for his palaces and villas, he dreaded the loss of his levees, of that crowded train of admirers and dependants who, on various occasions, had been indebted to his abilities. A soul which feeds upon applause soon sickens in retirement: it finds no consolation in that solitary dignity which

which great minds feel in the consciousness of rectitude. As he advanced in life, he repeatedly sacrificed his true honour and security for connections of the worst kind, with statesmen of the worst character, and was at once the dupe of their cunning and his own. It was then that his friend Brutus treated him with that haughtiness of which he complains in some epistles to Atticus, as being particularly offensive to a person of his age and elevation, from a man so much his junior. The young Stoic saw into the meanness of his ambition, and boldly and scornfully rebuked him. Could he have united to his own amiable urbanity some portion of the proud inflexibility of Cato, who disdained public honours when incompatible with public happiness, the unyielding spirit of that illustrious patriot would have corrected the temporizing principles of the orator, and left a splendid pattern of political perfection in the life of this accomplished Roman.

In a subsequent part of the preface, Mr. White explains some other peculiar traits of Cicero's character, and complains of the difficulty of transfusing the energetic, the animating vigour of the Roman orator; of conveying the grace, the harmony, and the elegance of the Roman periods, in the cold insipid neatness of a northern language. The powers of the English language are, however, varied, and almost inexhaustible: while we allow the difficulty as an excuse for imperfection, we could wish to employ it as an additional excitement to diligence and attention. It is not an impossible task, for we have seen some specimens of an attempt to make Tully pour out the whole force of his oratory, and to modulate his most artfully arranged periods in our own language. If Mr. White were more practised in the business of translating, we think that he would not have complained of the inanimated insipidity of the English, for many parts of his work are executed with much energy and ease.

We suppose that a Reviewer is not expected to examine the whole of a translation, and to compare every word with the original. We confess that we have not done so, but as the chemist, in order to obtain an adequate assay, takes from different parts of an heap of ore, we have dipped into different passages of this volume, and compared in each a few pages. In general, we find much to approve, and scarcely any thing to blame. We sometimes perceive a word omitted, which the copiousness of Tully will often properly allow, and which, perhaps, we should not blame, if we were not examining our author's fidelity as a translator. In one instance, which by accident lies before us, we think something of the force of the argument is lessened by the omission. It is near the conclusion of the first oration, (Translation, p. 19.) where

Cicero

Cicero ludicrously supposes that the provinces would send ambassadors to Rome, to dissuade the Romans from prosecuting those who have been extortioners in their government. They might say, he adds, that we can supply enough to enrich the governor and his family, but if the prosecutions continue, each governor must carry off what he supposes will satisfy himself, his patrons, *his advocates*, the prætors, his judges. Mr. White has omitted the words in italics, and added the conjunction copulative; slight errors, indeed, but they have some effect on the accumulated force of the sentence.

There are so few points in which our author seems to have mistaken the sense of his author, that we can pronounce this version to be not only spirited but generally correct. Yet, perhaps in another edition, he may think the following passage deserves attention: it is in the second Oration. 'He is the same Verres still, which he hath ever been; as prompt for villany, as eager to listen to any proposal for outrage.' The orator in the original undoubtedly descended to a pun. *Est idem Verres qui fuit semper; ut ad audendum projectus, sic paratus ad audiendum.* Cicero was expatiating on the unexpected appearance of Verres after the first impeachment, for he might undoubtedly have withdrawn, and it was said that he had retired. He is still present, adds the orator—'He is still the same man, as ready to attempt something new as to hear of his former outrages.'

We shall select as a specimen the introduction to these orations, as it is less connected with the argument, and consequently more easily understood by general readers. Our observations, which are few and trifling, will be readily comprehended by the help of the Italics and the notes.

'That glorious opportunity, venerable judges, the thing most of all to be desired, and which alone was requisite to remove * the odium incurred by the senatorial order, and the infamy which hath stained our tribunals, appears in this alarming crisis of affairs, to be presented not by any human means, but by the mercy of the Immortals. An inveterate prejudice hath prevailed, destructive to the state and to you, a topic universal, not only at Rome, but even amongst foreign empires, that conducted as our judicial enquiries now are, no opulent criminal, however atrocious, can suffer condemnation. In this critical situation of the Senate, and of your courts of justice, when there are persons on the watch to inflame with

* When their corruption was so intolerable as to require that another class of citizens should be invested with the judicature. The senators had been possessed of it from the dictatorship of Sylla.' Translator.

speeches and propositions this spirit against you, Caius Verres is impeached at your tribunal ; one whose life and actions have already condemned him in the public opinion, but who in his own thought stands acquitted by (*† the popular Rumour, by*) his purse and his presumption. I have undertaken this prosecution, venerable judges, with the most sanguine wishes and expectations of the Roman people, not that I may increase the odium against your order, but with intent to relieve you from this general dishonour. I have brought to trial an offender on whose head you may redeem the sullied fame of your judicature, restore yourselves to credit with the people of Rome, and give a *grand ‡* satisfaction to distant kingdoms. I have impeached the plunderer of the public treasure, the oppressor of Asia and Pamphylia, the violator of Roman justice, the scourge and curse of Sicily. If, with a conscientious (*and scrupulous*) * severity, you discharge your duty, the judicial power with which the laws have invested you will remain unshaken : but should the enormous wealth of the delinquent beat down probity and justice from the bench, I shall yet acquire this consolation, —it will be manifest to the world, that the state stood in need of incorruptible judges, not of a virtuous and vigorous prosecutor. For my own part, although Verres hath frequently plotted against my life, both § by sea and land, from which perils sometimes my own vigilance, sometimes the attachment and activity of my friends preserved me, yet have I at no period approached a danger of such magnitude, nor undergone such violent apprehension as I do on this present occasion. Neither the expectations of the public, nor the vast concourse here assembled (circumstances which cannot fail to agitate me) give me equal concern to that which I feel at the abominable conspiracy which the criminal hath formed at once ¶ against myself, against you, venerable judges, against Marcus Glabrio the prætor, against our allies and the nations abroad, against the whole body, and even the very name of the Senate. One whose constant maxim it is, that they alone have cause to fear, who have peculated only a sufficiency for themselves ; that his rapacity hath provided for multitudes ; that there is nothing so sacred which money may not violate, nothing so formidable which it cannot overthrow. Were this man as secret in the execution of his projects as he is audacious in devising them, he might perhaps, in some instances have over-reached us ; but this lucky circumstance operates in our favour, —a marvellous share of folly accompanies this audacity.—An avowed system of rapine was followed by the most clear and undisguised intention of corrupting the judicature.’

† Prædicatione.

‡ No analogous word in the original.

* Severe & religious.

§ In his expedition to Sicily to collect materials for the prosecution. Tr.

¶ Verres had boasted that he should be able to corrupt both his accuser and his judges.’ Tr.

The design of this publication at the present time is not mentioned; but from the hints at the oppressions of provincial governors, who return laden with the spoil of their subjects, we suspect that the period of its appearance was not merely accidental. If the object was to add to the popular clamour against Mr. Hastings, we should have severely reprehended it as unmanly, ungenerous, and improper; but we must not impute to Mr. White motives which he may perhaps detest as warmly as ourselves, or contend with a phantom of our own creation. If the subject of Mr. Hastings were now before us, we might suggest something in his defence: at present it is sufficient to observe, that no parallel can be drawn between the governors of Sicily and India: the one oppressed a province to enrich himself; the other, allowing the disputed fact of wanton oppression, by it saved a kingdom: the former returned universally detested, but the other still retains a powerful party among the natives, and it is well known, that to him, and almost to him alone, the innocent, the inoffensive Bramins freely opened their hidden stores of literature and of science.

A Continuation of the Evidence that the Relation of Josephus concerning Herod's having new built the Temple at Jerusalem is either false or misinterpreted. By the Author of the Evidence. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

THIS dispute hath now assumed a magnitude and importance which renders it a subject of close investigation. Our present author's first hypothesis is noticed in the LXIII^d volume of this Journal: it was answered by Mr. Burges soon afterwards, and his work occurs in our LXVth volume, p. 428. Each author has, perhaps, seasoned his controversy too highly, and Mr. Burges seems to have been initiated in the school of Bentley. For the former state of the dispute we must refer to our volumes which we have quoted, and shall proceed to explain the chief parts of this author's Continuation, and to give our opinion on the subject.

The first part of the dispute relates to the meaning of the term *κατασκευασθαι*, which Mr. Burges contends means to 'build anew:' our author Mr. S. 'to complete or to beautify, by a new arrangement.' We cannot find either from the context, or any proper authority, that it means 'to finish,' except when applied to building; and if we admit of its original interpretation, 'to arrange and put in order,' it will not materially assist the hypothesis of Mr. S. since it so often and so decidedly means to produce and to build. A similar word is applied to the building of Zerubbabel's temple by Josephus

sephus ἀναστὰς πολέως and κατασκευήσας. The word διορθούμενος, in Herod's speech, always appeared to us the most striking argument in Mr. S's favour; it more particularly means to repair, than to erect; but its general meaning undoubtedly is what we should in common language style 'setting to rights,' which is sometimes best effected by beginning the work again. It would have been easy, however, for the author of the Continuation to have expanded it into a powerful argument.

The πανεργον (we quote from Hudson's edition) vol. i. p. 701, the author of the Continuation unites with the εργον ου το πυχον επιβαλλετο in the first line of the 700th page, and thinks that the whole work is in reality not the rebuilding of the entire temple, but of so much of it as was decayed by the sinking of the foundations, the twenty cubits ως ὃ χρόνῳ συνιζήσαντων τῶν θεμελιῶν ὑπέβη, and so much as was left untouched in the time of Zerubbabel, by the edicts of Cyrus and Darius. Yet from the most careful enquiry that we can make, we cannot find that επιβαλλῶ and επιβολη refer rather to additions than to buildings. The nearest meaning of the radix to either interpretation, is to pile up, to raise one on another; and these are equally applicable to the one and to the other. The following argument which is new and striking we shall transcribe.

* In the name of common sense, if difficulties occur, and we must make them bend, let us at least make them bend to consistency. How could Josephus use such language as this if Herod had new built the Temple, or he had taught any such thing; would he not have said ἐν τῷ νῑῳ ὃν αὐτὸς κατασκεύασεν? And moreover if νῑος signifies, in the language of Josephus, as Mr. Burgess is peremptory it doth, the Sanctuary and Holy of Holies, and Herod had built a new one, one hundred cubits in length. What became of this new νῑος after it was built? for when Titus destroyed Jerusalem and the Temple, the length of the Sanctuary and Holy of Holies was only 60 cubits. (De Bello, v. 5.) Τὴν τοίνυν τὸ μὲν ὕψος ἐξήκοντα πεχυν καὶ τὸ μέκος ἰσον, and that this was spoken of the Sanctuary and Holy of Holies is most evident, because the historian says expressly that this ἡξήκοντα πεχυ was divided into two parts, the one whereof was forty cubits, containing what we know was furniture of the Sanctuary, and the other twenty, which οὐρατον δὲ καὶ ἀχραντον καὶ θεῶν ἡσυχαστῶν ἀγίον δὲ ἅγιον ἐκαλεῖτο. There may be, and doubtless there are, difficulties and want of specifications sufficient for our information in many parts of the description which Josephus here gives of the Temple, but there is none in the present instance; the building that contained the furniture of the Sanctuary was forty cubits, and the Holy of Holies twenty, and the whole together was ἡξήκοντα πεχυ in length: but it should have been ἑκατόντα πεχυ if Herod had new built it, and could

could not have been less consistently with Josephus's misinterpreted narrative of a new structure. This seems to be very conclusive, and to render it not only probable, but demonstrably certain, that Herod did not pull down and rebuild the ναός, meaning thereby the Sanctuary and Holy of Holies, because if he had done so, the length of their dimensions would have been one hundred cubits, whereas Josephus most explicitly and circumstantially informs us, that when the Temple was destroyed by Titus, they were only sixty. Hence *ηγειρε τον ναον*, &c. cannot mean, as Mr. Burgess, p. 50. contends, where he lays it down as a certain truth that Herod built new from the foundations the ναός, i. e. the Sanctuary and Holy of Holies distinct from the περιβολος, one hundred cubits in length, for had he done so, the ναός, distinct from the περιβολος, would, at the destruction of the Temple, have been one hundred cubits in length, which Josephus expressly informs us it was not.

Various arguments are afterwards subjoined, but we do not perceive that they are very forcible; and the author of the Continuation changes his ground and his hypothesis too often to admit our following him very implicitly. He has in this way extended his work too far, and he has lessened our attachment to his first, and as we think, happy conjecture.

This is nearly the foundation of the dispute, added to what we have before remarked, for we have brought forward the most pointed and decisive philological arguments; and these, as we have hinted, are not of sufficient importance to explain the author's hypothesis. On examining one part of the account which Josephus gives of the transaction, it is obvious from the tenour, as well as from the words, that he means to represent Herod as building the whole temple. We shall give an abstract of Josephus's narrative without any partiality, so far as we can keep from partiality, on either side; and our readers may judge for themselves.

In the eighteenth year of his reign 'he undertook no common work, to put in proper order the temple of the Lord, to extend its circumference, and to render its height more respectable,' entirely by his own efforts and at his own expence, for he thought this was a work of greater splendor than any in which he had been engaged, and more likely to perpetuate his fame. But as he understood the people were not yet reconciled to an undertaking of so great magnitude, he thought it proper to prepare their minds for the attempt by an oration.

In this first part of the narrative, it seems probable that Herod really designed only to enlarge and to repair. We have taken the more obvious meaning of *κατασκευαζασθαι*, 'to put in proper order,'

order,' and have translated περιβολον, circumference, from its general meaning, since it is not probaly used in its appropriated sense in this place: but to return.

Herod, after some flattery, and no small display of vanity, gives the Jews the history of their temple, and explains the reasons of its dimensions being so small. "But since (adds he) by the kindness of the Almighty I now reign, and after a long peace, abound in riches and possessions: besides that I am connected with the Romans, the lords of the universe, if I may use the expression, in the most cordial friendship, *I will endeavour to supply what was neglected* in consequence of the constraint and servitude, which our ancestors experienced, and render the reverence of this nation to God more complete, in return for his kindness to me."

We have engaged in this abstract not only to elucidate the question, but to point out the inconsistency of Josephus. So far every thing leans only towards a repair and enlargement, unless we force a few ambiguous words into a meaning which they will not without some violence admit. The next paragraph, however, destroys the whole of this system; it represents the people astonished at the unexpected declaration; timid, anxious, and uneasy at the incredible attempt and the magnitude of the undertaking. They feared that if he should proceed to destroy the whole work, καταλυσαι το πανεργον, that he would not have wealth enough to restore it. If, in this sentence, we take in the verb καταλυσαι, it will be impossible, we think, to connect the term, as the author of the Continuation proposes, with εργον & το τυχον in the former passage. Herod quieted their fears by promising that he would not destroy (καθαίρειν) the temple (ναον) till he had every thing ready to complete it (εις την συντελειαν). He accordingly provided a thousand carts, ten thousand workmen, and a thousand priests to finish the sanctuary. The priests completed the latter (ναος) in a year and six months, the ten thousand workmen were employed eight years on the other parts of the building.

In this difficulty it is not easy to decide: the repair and the additions would not have required so much labour, and in the first extract there is not a hint of destroying those parts of the temple which existed. The contradiction is therefore obvious, and the historian's best friends must give up one passage or the other. This was the defect we alluded to in the philological arguments of the author of the Continuation. We have not a doubt in our own minds that we should detract from the magnitude of the preparations, and all the second part of the narrative, where much colouring seems to have been added by the historian. We cannot extend our article with a long investigation

vestigation; but from the best information which we can obtain, we are convinced that Herod repaired and enlarged the temple only. In this way, the prophecy of Haggai, the silence of other historians, and every collateral as well as every subsequent event, will be most consistently explained. If the consistency of Josephus is sacrificed by this conclusion, we have the satisfaction of thinking that neither the general credit of history, or, as Mr. Burges apprehended, the testimonies in favour of Christianity can be materially injured by it.

De Rhythmo Græcorum Liber singularis, in usum Juventutis Coll. Æn. Naf. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Fletcher, Oxford.

THE rhythm of the Greeks, though frequently mentioned by the writers of antiquity, is but imperfectly understood; and the ingenious author of this treatise merits the thanks of the learned, for collecting and digesting what has been already said, as well as for his own observations towards elucidating so difficult a subject. That very wonderful effects have been produced by the artificial arrangement of words and combination of sounds, is indisputably proved by the historical records of Greece; and old grammarians † have assigned the causes that produced them. However singular, or unsatisfactory their reasons may appear to us, we should consider that they were better acquainted with the force and properties of these numbers than we can pretend to be, and agreed in opinion as to their respective and different powers.—Isaac Vossius, the author observes, in his treatise *De Poematum Cantu & viribus Rhythmi*, rather describes its effects than develops its principles, and affords more amusement than instruction to his readers: that what he neglected, or was unwilling to undertake, has been attempted with little success by succeeding writers. To those of Greece, therefore, he recurred for assistance; and in regard to them from whom he professes to have derived the most material information, Aristotle takes the lead, ‘qui in his studiis nullam fere rem non illustratum reliquit.’ Aristotle among philologists, like Jupiter amidst the heathen gods, appears to have no equal, ‘nil simile aut secundum.’ The author professes to have derived likewise much instruction and assistance from Aristides, Quintilianus, Dionysius Halicarnasseus, and Hermogenes. In the first chapter, he thus treats of the essence and general properties of rhythm.

‘Rhythmi etymon referunt nonnulli ad ῥῦμ custodio; Melius qui ad ῥῦμ eo, ruo, &c. Significatio ejus apud Græcos est duplex. Dicitur propriè de Moribus, et de Tempore, quatenus Moruum

† See Arist. Quint. de Musica, lib. ii. p. 99. and Dion. Halicarn. sect. xi. 22.

est mensura. De Corporibus, eorumque dispositione et figurâs per Metaphorâ. Secundum Bacchium Seniore est, Tempori, commentatio facta quodam certo motu. Nichomacho est, Temporum ordinato compositio. Aristides eum vocat, Systema Temporum secundum ordinem quendam compositorum. Eundem appellat Plato, Ordinem quendam qui in Motibus cernitur. Aristoteles Rhythmo attribuit numerum ordinatum, cujus vi, ac potestate nos etiam movet ordinatè. Galenus etiam proportionem. Quocum convenit illud Aristoxeni "Rursus in iis quæ circa Rhythmos consideramus, multa ejusmodi fieri videmus. Etenim proportionem manente per quam genera sunt determinata, pedum magnitudines moventur propter ductûs potestatem." Hinc patet sensus Leophanti, qui Rhythmum ita definivit: "Temporum compositionem per proportionem, et commensum inter se spectatorum," i. e. Temporum compositi nem, quatenus mutuum sunt mensura; secundum ordinem numeratorum, et per rationem quandam aut proportionem et commensum inter se spectatorum.

‘Rhythmus variè obijcitur sensibus. In Saltatione percipitur visu; in Arteriarum pulsatione, tactu: in Sonis, auditu.

‘In Saltatione, solus; in oratione recitandâ, cum dictione; in pulsibus et colis, cum voce aut instrumentis organicis.

‘Dividitur porro in saltatione, tum figuris, tum harum terminis, qui et signa vocantur. In dictione, syllabis; in sonorum modulatione, rationibus elationum ad positiones, de quibus dicendum erit in capite proximo.’

In the second chapter rhythm is considered as relative to music; and in the third, to poetry. In this part of the work much philological erudition is displayed; but in addition to what is said on these subjects, might not the distinction that exists between the physical causes of melody in music and in poetry, with propriety have been pointed out? Each of them, indeed, we apprehend, results from the due* ratio or proportion being preserved: but what is effected in one by the skilful arrangement of sounds, the acute and grave, is caused in the other by the quantites of the syllables being justly regulated: thus Capella says†, ‘Numerus in verbis per syllabum, in modulatione per sonum.’ Aristides likewise observes, much to the same purpose, that ‘Rhythm in singing is divided into arsis and thesis (the elevation and depression of the voice), but in words it is a division of the syllables.’ Cicero observes, that ‘no melody can proceed from a continued sound; and that the recurrence of similar ones, like the falling of successive drops of rain, is equally disagreeable.’ There must be both variety and proportion to constitute it, and the Greek language, from its happy mixture of long and short syllables, is calculated

* What the Greeks distinguished by the name of *Rhythm*, the Latins styled *numerus*, and we commonly *measure*. According to Mr. Harris, ‘No English word expresses *rhythmus* better than the word *time*.’

† Mart. Capel. de Nupt. Philolog. l. ix. p. 191.

of all others to make the most pleasing impression on the ear.— The fourth and fifth books consider the existence and nature of rhythm in prosaic compositions: and the sixth contains a variety of examples, selected from Isocrates and Demosthenes, to shew that such sort of measured periods, among the Greeks, were not accidental, but the result of study and design: towards the establishment of this point the performance before us was professedly written, and it appears to us most satisfactorily demonstrated. The circumstance indeed seemed to require but little additional proof. We know the force of numbers was well understood not only by the poets, but orators of Greece; and Quintillian, whose authority is indisputable, observes, ‘*Neque enim Demosthenes fulmina tantopere vibrasse diceretur, nisi numeris consortia ferrentur.*’

An Appendix is annexed concerning the Greek cæsura; in which we find the same philological acumen and perspicuity that mark the other parts of the performance.

A Treatise of the Materia Medica. By William Cullen, M. D. In Two Volumes. 4to. 2l. 2s. in Boards. Elliott and Kay.

ABOUT the end of the year 1761, almost in the moment of the commencement of the session, Dr. Alston, professor of the materia medica in Edinburgh, died, and the college would have suffered great injury if his place had not been supplied. Dr. Cullen offered his services, and they were accepted. What it would have been meritorious to have done by a decent compilation, he executed in a plan at once new, bold, and original; for his arrangement was not more uncommon, than his remarks were striking and peculiar. Copies of these lectures were multiplied, with all the accumulated imperfections of a first sketch, oral communication, and repeated transcribing, till at last one reached the press. It appeared in 1772; but an injunction from Chancery, in consequence of Dr. Cullen's petition, stopped the sale: the business was however compromised; the first sheet was reprinted; and a pretty numerous list of corrections was subjoined. In this state the impression was sold, and copies became scarce, when Dr. Cullen was requested to give a more correct edition: he has at last complied, and published his more mature sentiments on this important subject to the world. It is a work that has been long expected, and will probably be received with pleasure. A veteran in medicine, in his seventy-seventh year, after more than fifty years practice, must be attended with respect, and listened to with candour.

Of the spurious copy of the Lectures, a long account occurs in our XXXIII^d volume, p. 345; but, as we confined

ourselves in that article to our author's physiological opinions, and his sentiments on diet; as, since that period, the first are more generally diffused, and the last received no very important change, we shall now give an account of the present plan, and enlarge more fully on the second volume, which contains with greater strictness what has been styled the *Materia Medica*.

We must follow Dr. Cullen's plan, and first mention the omissions. The synonyms, particularly those of the ancients, as they are very uncertain; critical discussions on the choice of the different species of the same genus; the description of the medicine in its best state; and the chemical analyses of the different medicines, as well as their pharmaceutical treatment, are omitted. Dr. Cullen, in his catalogue, refers to the Linnean species, which he prefers, and there the synonyms may undoubtedly be found. This, we think, he should have mentioned, and that among them the nomenclature of Caspar Bauhine, the best guide to the ancient names, usually occurs. When he speaks of the description of medicines in their best state being to be found in other systems, he might perhaps have added in this place that, without exception, the most complete and accurate account is in the *Materia Medica* of Bergius, a work which has seldom had the good fortune to receive its due share of praise till the publication of the present volumes. The last desideratum our countryman Lewis will sufficiently supply. Murray's *Apparatus Medicaminum*, to which our author also refers, is undoubtedly, so far as it goes, the most complete treatise that we have yet received, and will supply almost every one of these omissions. We promised, when we received Dr. Murray's fourth volume, to offer some observations on it; but we do not perceive that he has completed his account of the vegetables, for some he has still to consider, unless he leaves his work imperfect; and it is only after a complete view that the reader will be able to judge of the propriety of his arrangements in natural orders. His last order is the forty-second, the *vepreculæ*.

The first volume commences with a very full and a very excellent history of the *Materia Medica*, with remarks on the works of different authors. In this review there is much just and much severe criticism; but it is seldom that the severity is not just. Yet we may perhaps be allowed to remark, that Dr. Cullen is not so forward to point out the merits as the defects; and though we wish not often to detract from the blame which he bestows on many authors, it ought to have been counterbalanced by their advantages. Vogel's Arrangement, for instance,

stance, is artificial, inconvenient, and not even consistently conducted: the remarks are occasionally whimsical, superstitious, or trifling; but Vogel was an indefatigable collector, from whence many of these improper observations arise; he was a good practitioner, and his 'History,' with the tares, contains much wholesome aliment. Spielman's Indications are, we think, with our author, too general; and he is, in some instances, superficial; but he is a diligent collector from volumes not usually in the hands of physicians; his own observations are often judicious; and we must confess, that we have seldom consulted his work without receiving information. In his Syllabus Medicamentorum, his indications are more correct; but, in his later attempt, the Materia Medica, prefixed to his General Pharmacopeia, he has adopted the alphabetical order. We are not very much acquainted with his last labours, but, led by Dr. Cullen's censure, we have turned it over somewhat cursorily; we cannot, however, find any very just ground for his severity. While our veteran professor was looking so carefully for faults, we are a little surprised that he had not discovered, even in his favourite Dr. Murray, whose 'apparatus' we have ourselves praised with pleasure, and even cheerfulness, that at times he is too copious; that the extent of his article on any subject is not always in proportion to its importance, since some trifling medicines are examined at great length; and that, in a few instances, his 'selection of writers is *not* judicious.' While Dr. Cullen was in Germany, we wondered that he should neglect Holland. There is a work of no great importance indeed, but sufficiently so from the name of the author, and the method of treating the subject, to deserve attention. It is the Materia Medica of David de Gorter, though really compiled by the father, John de Gorter, and adapted to the Compendium Medicinæ. It consists of little more than a catalogue of names from the properties of the medicines, and two similar ones from the use. While in this neighbourhood also, Dr. Cullen might have recollected Haller, who, in his description of the plants of Switzerland, has given many valuable remarks on their medical properties.

Our author next proceeds to those physiological enquiries which affect the operation, or modify the powers of medicines, and then considers the different methods that have been employed to ascertain the virtues of medicines; viz. chemical examination, botanical affinity, the sensible qualities, and experience. The three former have been almost generally neglected, though botanical analogy has been lately again recommended. — Our professor does not wholly reject,

but gives many reasons for limiting its use; yet, perhaps, a favourer of this mode of investigation would suggest, that the similarity, 'taken from the parts of fructification only,' is not sufficient to give authority to the term. On the subject of experience, Dr. Cullen points out many sources of error, with great judgment and propriety: indeed, in the scepticism which he displays in this part he prepares us for that which is to follow; but we mean not to blame him in this respect, for those who have practised long will hesitate, and trust with a guarded caution even the warmest recommendations. The next object of enquiry is the most proper plan; and, after a very short examination, Dr. Cullen prefers that which depends on indications. Indeed the only one which can come in competition with it is Dr. Murray's botanical one; but, even in his hands, we do not perceive that it possesses any very important advantages. In the present work, in consequence of our author's choice of his plan, the introductory observations to each class form a system of therapeutics; and indeed this part is detailed so much at length, that we think these volumes might have been more fitly termed the *Philosophy of the Materia Medica*. A list of the titles of the different classes of medicines which have been formed, with remarks on those which our author rejects, next follow.

The catalogue of nutritious substances and medicines differs in some degree from that which he gave in his lectures, and which accompanies the spurious edition: to the classes which act on the simple solid, we find two added, tonics and corrosives. The sedatives are very properly subdivided into narcotics and refrigerants: the others remain unchanged. In the catalogue of different substances, he first gives the officinal, or common name; next the generic and specific names of Linnæus, from Dr. Murray's edition of 1784; and lastly, the English names. We perceive, on comparison, that he has omitted the pepones (pumpions) from the cucurbitaceous fruits, and added the petroselinum, or parsley, to the esculent herbs. To the radices esculenti, he has added the salep, the shallot, and the raccambole. In a new class, *cerealibus affinia*, which he has established with some propriety, as a link between the *cereal*ia and other mucilaginous substances, he has properly inserted the sago. He should have added the salep, since we do not use it as an esculent root; and he might have inserted the tapioca. He has added under this head, with less propriety, the buck-wheat, and, we think very improperly, the chestnut, for, though no oil can be expressed from it, which is his argument for excluding it from the *nucis oleosa*, yet, in every view, it is properly a substance of this class. With the artificial

ficial idea which he has annexed to the *nucis oleosæ*, he has added in the work the seeds of the white poppy, because oil may be expressed from them. To the *pecora*, Dr. Cullen has added the *cervus elaphas*, *dama*, and *capreolus*; to the *gleres*, the rabbit; and to the *gallinæ*, the *phasianus colchicus*, and the *numida meleagris* (pheasant and Guinea-hen); the *tetrao rubescens* and *lagopus* (the moor-fowl and the ptarmigan). To the *anseræ*, he has added the *larus tridactylus*, the kittiwake; to the *grallæ*, the *scolopax gallinago*, and *arquata* (snipe and curlew); the *tringa squatorola*, the grey plover; and has omitted the *seapoy*, the coot, and the bittern. In the class *passeræ*, he has only retained the pigeon and the lark.

Of the *amphibia*, he speaks particularly of the tortoise, the frog, the viper, and the lizard. From the long class of fish, he has rejected all but the salmon, the carp, the tench, the perch, the haddock, the whiting, the cod, the mackarel, the herring, the pike, the anchovy, and the turbot. He has, however, added the eel, the wolf-fish, the sole, the grey flounder, and the doree. To the *amphibia nantia*, he has added the thorn-back; and to the *insecta*, the cray-fish. Of the *vermes* he has only kept the oyster, the cockle, and the muscle.

In his account of these substances he is less extensive in some of the more trifling parts, and fuller in those objects which are of importance. The article of milk is seemingly extended too far; but it is full of useful and just observations. What relates to the food of nurses may perhaps be read with advantage, with the reasonable allowance which must be made for a difference of constitution and previous habits.

‘Upon the subject of the chief use of human milk, it remains only to say what may be most proper to put nurses in the best condition to afford milk in the greatest plenty, and of the most proper quality. To this purpose I need not say, that if a nurse is chosen of a sound constitution, whatever in general is proper to preserve health is the chief, perhaps all, that is necessary to make her a good nurse. What are the measures in general proper for this purpose, it is not requisite to say; and the only particular that we are engaged to consider here is, that after having laid so much of the connection between the diet employed and the milk produced, that we should determine as well as we can what is the most proper diet for nurses.

To ascertain this, we may observe, that the milks employed by the human species are all taken from animals living very entirely upon vegetable aliment; and therefore that a milk produced from that is sufficiently well suited to the human economy: but that it is the best suited to it may be doubted from hence, that the milk destined to new-born children is the milk

of women, who are capable of employing, and do commonly employ, a mixed diet of animal and vegetable matter; from which it might be inferred, that a milk afforded by such a diet was the best suited to the human œconomy, even in the infant state.

‘ If, however, it be considered, that womens milk contains as much vegetable matter as any other, and that nature has appointed it to be employed at a time when the chief purpose seems to be the introducing a vegetable matter, the use of a diet allowable, and perhaps necessary, at other times, does not afford an argument for its being proper upon this occasion.

‘ I might say a great deal to show that the human œconomy, except in few instances, does not absolutely demand the use of animal food; that in fewer instances still does it demand it in large proportion; and that for the most part the health of the human body is best preserved by a large proportion of vegetable food. So from all this I think it will readily follow, that the health of women during the time of their nursing may be safely sustained by the use of vegetable aliments alone.

‘ From the employment, therefore, of animal food by the human species, there arises no argument for the necessity or propriety of a woman's taking animal food during the time of her nursing. I allege it to be a matter of experience, that supposing the quantity of liquid to be the same, nurses living entirely, or for the greater part, upon vegetable aliment, afford a greater quantity of milk, and of more proper quality than nurses living upon much animal food. This I venture to assert from the observations of fifty years; during which time, I have known innumerable instances of the healthiest children reared upon the milk of nurses living entirely upon vegetable aliments; and I have known many instances of children becoming diseased by their being fed by the milk of nurses who had changed their diet from entirely vegetable to the taking in a quantity of animal food. Nay, I have known instances of childrens becoming disordered from a nurse's making a single meal of an unusually large proportion of animal food.

‘ If it be the purpose of nature, as it seems to be, to give infants milk of an acescent kind in pretty large quantity, Dr. Young's experiments on bitches serve well to show how necessary a vegetable aliment is for that purpose; for these experiments inform us, that by feeding a bitch upon animal food alone, not only the quality of it was greatly changed, but the quantity of it also diminished.’

Dr. Cullen contends that the acescency sometimes found in a child's stomach will not probably be increased or primarily occasioned by this diet of its nurse; and that the tendency to menstruation and conception will probably be lessened.

The natural historian, and perhaps the epicure, will not excuse

excuse us if we should omit describing the new species of cabbage.

‘ Since I first wrote the above, I have become acquainted with a species of brassica that I was not acquainted with before. This is what has been called the brassica gongylodes, which, till I raised it in my own garden, was not, so far as I can learn, known or produced in Britain. It is distinguished by its having on the upper part of its stalk a swelled part, or spheroidal tuber, which, within a firm cortical part, is formed of a substance of the same nature with that which forms the medullary part in the stalks of cabbage and other kinds of colewort. This medullary part, when freed from its rind, and very well boiled, is of a tender and sweet substance, and certainly is considerably nourishing, and appears to me to be less flatulent than the cabbage. It is firmer in its consistence, and sweeter than the turnip; and though the hardness of its bark may render it unfit to be reared for the purpose of feeding cattle, I am of opinion, that under proper management it may afford a delicacy for the tables of men.’

Our author's short observations on the effects of salt in producing scurvy, are so different from the common opinion, and so very opposite to his general system of medicine, that we shall extract them. They will not be new indeed to the readers of our author's works, or to his pupils; but they are urged with unusual force.

‘ But when salted meats are taken in large quantity, and make the greatest part of the diet, the salt increases greatly the saline state of the blood, and induces all the symptoms of scurvy. This indeed of late is a doctrine disputed: and it would not be proper for us to enter into the controversy here; but if it were, we are persuaded that our opinion could be well supported, and that the arguments on the other hand might be shown to be fallacious and false.

‘ If it should be found that the serum of the blood in scorbutic persons proves antiseptic, as has been alleged, this may imply that such serum is in itself not putrid, and which indeed is not necessarily to be supposed in scurvy; but such serum cannot certainly prove antiseptic, but by its containing a larger proportion than usual of saline matter. Nothing can appear to me more extraordinary than Dr. Lind's assertion, that the serum of the blood in scorbutic persons is not any wise acrid to the taste; for in numberless trials, I have never found the serum of the blood in the soundest persons without an acrimony discoverable by the taste: and if the saline efflorescence on the surface of the body, which Dr. Hulme takes notice of, be common, as I believe it is, in scorbutic persons, it is an irrefragable proof of the saline state of the blood in such persons.’

We shall beg leave to conclude our present account in this place; for, though it may render our articles disproportioned, we think the inconvenience will be less than would result from mixing the subjects of diet and medicine, or entering into discussions which cannot be properly concluded. Such a one awaits us in the beginning of the medical part, viz. the distinction between astringents and tonics.

Memoirs of the Reign of Bossa Ahádee, King of Dahomy, an inland Country of Guiney. To which is added, a Short Account of the Slave Trade. By Robert Norris. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Lowndes.

IF a short account of the slave trade had not been annexed to these Memoirs we should have placed greater confidence in the representations of Mr. Norris; but, as his object seems to have been to lessen the odium affixed to the traffick, we must hesitate a little in admitting implicitly the account of the cruelties of the petty monarch whose memoirs he details. We have, however, no reason to doubt of the truth of many parts of this work: the author seems to relate with unadorned fidelity what he has heard or observed with attention.

The hero of his tale, Bossa Ahádee, is king of Dahomy, a petty inland principality, to which his predecessor, Guadja Trudo, annexed, in 1708, the more fertile and advantageous maritime territory of Whydah, with the intermediate province of Ardrah, and the adjoining one of Jacquim. Ardrah, besides its being the connecting link between the old possessions and those acquired on the coast, was of importance, as it lay on the banks of a navigable river, the Lagos. Ahádee, the successor of Trudo, was warlike and ambitious, but not equally successful. The forces of his kingdom were weakened by his unfortunate attack on his western neighbours, the Mahees, and the kingdom itself endangered, from the incursions of his warlike north-eastern neighbours, the Eyoës.

Mr. Norris apologizes for using the terms king and palace as denominations of a brutal savage and a number of huts and courts surrounded by a mud wall. But, in his visits, there were marks of a rude magnificence, and a profusion both of lives and money, which showed a numerous population, and no inconsiderable riches. We have already observed, that these marks of cruelty are suspicious, as the author's bias is very strong; and a court paved with skulls; roofs ornamented with heads; scarves, consisting of strings of human teeth; the reeking heads, recently cut off, at the different gates of the palaces; with the human sacrifices, and the repasts of human flesh on the festivals.

seem

seem to us to be exaggerated representations. Even the following observation, which would be curious as a single fact, and more so as a striking unexpected coincidence with the Spartan polity, we cannot, for the same reasons, trust with much confidence. On the anniversary of the festival, styled 'Annual Customs,' each young man repairs to court to purchase a wife:

'The state principles from which this mode of supplying wives is derived is, that "parents have no sort of property in their children in the Dahoman territories: they belong entirely to the king," and are taken from their mothers at an early age, and distributed in villages remote from the places of their nativity; where they remain subject to his future appropriation of them, with but little chance of their being ever seen, or at least recognized by their parents, afterwards. The motive for this is, that there may be no family connections or combinations; no associations, that might be injurious to the king's unlimited power. Hence, each individual is detached, and unconnected; and having no relative for whom he is interested, is solicitous only for his own safety; which he consults by the most abject submission and obedience. Here paternal affections and filial love scarcely exist. Mothers, instead of cherishing, endeavour to suppress those attachments for their offspring, which they know will be violated as soon as their children are able to undergo the fatigue of being removed from them.—

—'At this time too (the period of the annual customs), the king informs himself particularly of the behaviour of each of his slaves, the meanest of whom have access to him upon this occasion, and, if injured, has an opportunity of applying personally and in private for redress; which is a check on the conduct of those in power, and, no doubt, prevents them from oppressing their inferiors. There are indeed but few instances of personal injuries in this country; for as they are all slaves to the king, those who enjoy any pre-eminence are cautious how they abuse their fellow-slaves, lest they incur the displeasure of their common master: and from this terror, in quarrels between equals, they content themselves with expressing their indignation in mutual invective; and rarely proceed to blows, lest a king's slave should be hurt, which would be of serious consequences to the aggressor.'

It is a remarkable custom, though mentioned by some former authors, that, during the period between the death of a king and the appointment of his successor, all is anarchy, and the strongest plunders the weakest. This interval is not long; but, though the monarchy is hereditary, the great officers of state are allowed to chuse which of the king's sons they think most deserving of the crown; and, during this deliberation, confusion prevails, as 'if, adds our author, it were designed

to impress on every mind, that due order and regularity is consistent only with the existence of a monarch.'

We look on this work, however, as more important in the little details which are preserved of the natural history of the country, than as a continued narrative of the exploits of a tyrant, or a studied defence of the negro trade. The country on the coast is sandy, and under the sand is a red earth; it rises gradually for an hundred and fifty miles without any remarkable hills, and not a stone is to be found in this space, so far as our author's information extended. It is fertile, woody, well watered by many rapid rivers, and on the whole pleasant and healthful. The inhabitants are numerous, but the women in greater proportion than men. This may be partly owing to the slave trade; but we suspect it is more probably the consequence of polygamy, since this is the effect of polygamy in other countries. Men of rank and importance keep great numbers of women in their seraglios; even eunuchs have the same attendants for the sake of parade and magnificence; but, contrary to their general disposition, they are very indulgent masters, and allow their ladies a sufficient number of lovers.

The harmattan is a remarkable wind on this coast. All its phenomena we have had occasion to explain from its dryness; but perhaps this explanation may not appear sufficient: let us extract a part of our author's description.

'This wind is always accompanied with an unusual gloominess, and haziness of the atmosphere; very few stars can be seen through the fog; and the sun, concealed the greatest part of the day, appears only for a few hours about noon, and then of a mild red, exciting no painful sensation in the eye. No dew is perceived during the continuance of this wind; nor is there the least appearance of any moisture in the atmosphere. Salt of tartar, dissolved in water, so as to run upon a tile, and exposed to the harmattan, even in the night, becomes perfectly dry again in a few hours. Vegetables, of every kind, suffer considerably from it; all tender plants, and seeds just sprouting above the earth, are killed by it: the most flourishing evergreens feel its baneful influence; the branches of the lemon, orange, and lime-trees droop; the leaves become flaccid, and wither; and their fruits, robbed of their usual nourishment, are cramped in their growth, and ripen, or rather appear yellow, and become dry, before they have arrived at half their usual size. Every thing appears dull and faded: the grass withers, and dries like hay; of which circumstance the natives avail themselves, to burn it down in the vicinity of the roads; as well to keep them open, as to destroy the shelter which it affords to wild beasts, or even to enemies that might lurk concealed in it. The covers of books, shut up closely in a trunk, and

and protected by lying among cloaths, bend back as if they had been exposed to a fire; the pannels of doors, window-shutters, &c. split; and the joints of a well-laid floor, of seasoned wood, will gape so wide, that one may lay his finger in them: the sides and decks of ships become quite open and leaky; and re-neered work flies to pieces, from the contraction of the wood in different directions. If casks containing liquor, as wine, or spirits, are not frequently wetted on the outside, they generally lose their contents.—

— ‘So far its effects on the animal and vegetable world are very disagreeable, but it is also productive of some good. The state of the air is extremely conducive to health: it contributes surprisngly to the cure of old ulcers and cutaneous eruptions: persons labouring under fluxes and intermitting fevers, generally recover in an harmattan; and they who have been weakened and relaxed by fevers, and sinking under evacuations for the cure of them, particularly bleeding (which is often injudiciously repeated), have their lives saved in spite of the doctor. It stops the progress of epidemic diseases: the small-pox, fluxes and remittent fevers not only disappear, but they who are labouring under these disorders when an harmattan comes on, are almost sure of a speedy recovery. Infection is not then easily communicated. In the year 1770, I had above three hundred slaves on board a ship in Whydah road, when the small-pox appeared among them; the greater part of these were inoculated before an harmattan came on; and about seventy of them underwent that operation a few days after it set in: the former got very well through the disorder: none of the latter had either any sickness or eruption: we thought we had got clear of the disorder, but in a very few weeks it began to appear among these seventy: about fifty of them were inoculated the second time; the others had it in the natural way: an harmattan came on, and they all recovered, except one girl, who had a malignant ulcer on the inoculated spot, and died some time afterwards of a locked jaw. These salutary effects may probably be not universal, especially where the harmattan may come laden with the noisome effluvia of a putrid swamp, which is not the case in this part of the country.’

In this account our author differs from Dr. Lind, who calls the harmattan a malignant and fatal wind. It is accompanied with a refreshing coolness, which to the native is a severe cold. The source of the harmattan is, our author tells, in his opinion about the spot, where an east line drawn from Cape Verd would cut a north-east line from the centre of the Gold Coast, and a north line from Cape Lopez. Unfortunately, on the best maps, these lines will not unite in a point; but they very nearly coincide in the centre of Africa, in about 18° north latitude, and in 30 degrees of longitude east of Ferro, nearly in those mountains from whence all the great rivers of Africa arise. This
part

part of the country abounds in lakes, and cannot occasion the excessive drought which evidently accompanies the harmattan. Other authors derive it from the barren sands of Lempta and Terga, to the north-west of the mountains just described. It is not easy to decide; but if in its passage it has not deposited its water on the arid soil of Barbary, its extreme dryness is only to be accounted for by some natural process going on to a great extent in that neighbourhood, which has decomposed the air. Its coldness evidently arises from the very great and copious evaporation which it occasions, and its haziness, from a deposition of those particles which the water in the air used to dissolve. It is certain that, in passing over the sea, the air soon acquires its clearness, and its usual properties.

We need not conclude our account with any general remarks: we have enlarged a little on this work, because we have received from it some information; and, for the same cause (*exceptis excipiendis*), we would recommend it to our readers.

A few Observations concerning those Things which are probable, or in some Measure ascertained, relative to the History and Cure of the Plague. By William Henderson, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

DR. Henderson, who appears to have practised some time in the Levant, gives a plain, short, and apparently judicious account of the plague. Those parts of his work which relate to infection and the communication of the disease, seem to be particularly valuable. But Dr. Lind's Papers on Fever and Infection have already precluded much discussion on these subjects, by establishing many important and useful facts, applicable to fevers of every kind: it is now only necessary to mention shortly in what respects our author has added to the facts of this description, and where he has contributed to establish some positions which were doubtful.

It is a fact, he says, that every nation endeavours to shift from itself the odium of having produced the plague: its origin like the situation of the North is

‘At Nova Zembla, or the Lord knows where.’

Infection, he observes, is more readily conveyed by those who are perfumed, since the volatility of the odour carries with its particles those capable of producing the disease. He confirms the opinion, that infection is more readily conveyed by goods than by a recent body; and adds, that a dead body, at least before the particles are volatilized by putrefaction, is still less liable to convey the infection. He is probably not correct when he says, that extreme cold is likely to check the progress of

of the disease: observation has shown, however improbable it may appear, that extreme heat seems often to have this power, while the disease will continue during the severest winters of its peculiar climate. To guard against infection, he does not recommend altering the course of life, unless it is obviously improper. Strengtheners and use of issues he recommends; the latter are strongly supported, as we have had occasion to mention in an excellent memoir in the French Medical Transactions. He thinks that people may have frequently received infection, though it is carried off by the different excretions, when the system is in health, and the necessary evacuations properly kept up: this opinion we have often mentioned as extremely probable. The following observations on the prognosis we have not before seen, and we cannot, of course, make any remarks on them from experience.

‘It is sometimes observed that one eye is smaller than the other, and this is by some regarded as a mark that the eruptions which are proper to this disease, are about to appear on that side of the body. The pulse is often very quick, and then generally unequal and irregular in its pulsations. In some cases a remarkable difference has been observed between the state of the pulse in the right and left arm, and its becoming stronger on the side of the body in which the eruptions take place, is regarded as a favourable omen. The pulsations of the carotid and temporal arteries are often so violent, that they can be distinctly discerned by persons near the patient. The same irregularity of pulse which takes place in this disease, has been observed under the operation of poisons, and in other grievous diseases. Shewing in general, that when the powers of life, which are the general bond of union, are greatly weakened, a great variety and irregularity takes place in all the symptoms, and many of the latent tendencies and powers of the system, which before lay hid, are now discovered, and become predominant in proportion as the bond of union is loosened and overcome by the disease.’

Dr. Henderson treats vaguely of the cure. Emetics and laxatives, we suspect, he recommends too strongly, and does not insist sufficiently on that steady and constant diaphoe, which, under Chenot's direction, appeared to be so successful at Breslaw. We cannot speak on this subject with greater precision than the author, and we hope that we shall never be enabled to do it.

England Delineated; or, a Geographical Description of every County in England and Wales: with a concise Account of its most Important Products, natural and artificial. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Johnson.

‘**A**N accurate and comprehensive account of the present state of these kingdoms, under the several heads of
natural

natural and political history, agriculture, and commerce,' is undoubtedly much wanted. The present work, our author acknowledges, can scarcely pretend to be an imperfect outline of this plan: it is indeed only a very faint and distant sketch. The geography, the cultivation, trade, and manufactures, are the principal objects of our author; for antiquities, family histories, and local descriptions, were scarcely to be brought within limits so confined. He has trusted somewhat to books, and more to the information of correspondents; but he seems to hint, that his letters have not always been attended to: perhaps his correspondents thought it a little unreasonable that an author in a retired corner should hang out his eleemosynary box, and expect it to be filled by gratuitous communications for his own benefit. We can perceive from the great accuracy of some parts of this work, that he must have received occasionally good intelligence.

Our author's language is as usual easy, and often elegant; if we select his account of Buckinghamshire as a specimen, it is because we would select the whole of one article, and it is the most interesting of the short ones.

* This county is contiguous to Northamptonshire, on the north, Oxfordshire on the west, Berkshire and a point of Surry on the south, and the counties of Middlesex, Hertford, and Bedford, on the east. Its principal natural boundary is the Thames, which borders its whole southern side. The Coln also separates it from Middlesex; and other streams take up the boundary in different parts. Its figure tends to a crescent, but its outline is rendered very irregular by projections and indentations. From the south-eastern to the north-western extremity it measures upwards of fifty miles, while its greatest breadth is little more than sixteen.

* The southern part of Buckinghamshire, beyond the banks of the Thames, is principally taken up with the Chiltern-hills and their appendages, composed of chalk, and in various parts covered with woods. Some of its eminences are of considerable height, and afford fine prospects.

* Beyond these, the rich vale of Aylesbury, one of the most fertile tracts in the kingdom, occupies the middle of the county; and a varied country rising into gentle sand-hills on the Bedfordshire border, extends over the northern part.

* The river Ouse, entering Buckinghamshire on the western side, and then turning northwards, crosses over at length near the northern extremity, marking its course by a tract of rich meadows.

Here Ouse, slow winding thro' a level plain
Of spacious meads with cattle sprinkled o'er,
Conducts the eye along his sinuous course
Delighted.

COWPER'S TASK.

'The

' The Tame, rising in Hertfordshire, crosses from east to west through Aylesbury Vale in its way to Oxfordshire.

' With respect to the products of this county, barley is chiefly cultivated in the Chiltern; and great part of the vale is devoted to the grazing of cattle and feeding of sheep, which is a source of much opulence to the landholders. Fine wheat is grown in the uplands. The wood of the hills, chiefly beech, is a considerable article of profit both as fuel and timber.

' The manufacture of bone-lace is carried on to greater extent and perfection in this county than in any other; particularly in the town and neighbourhood of Newport Pagnel, which is a sort of mart for that article, and flourishes considerably by its means.

' Buckingham is a decayed place, of little consequence, and has lost the privilege of the assizes, which are now held at Aylesbury. This last is the most populous town in the county, and the centre of the business of the rich Vale.

' The village of Eton opposite to Windsor, is distinguished by its college or public school, founded by king Henry VI. and the greatest institution of the kind in the kingdom.'

There are some errors, as may be expected, interspersed, but they are not numerous or important. Westmoreland is so called, he says, from its western mores, but its last historians allow, that in the ancient writings, it is called Westmereland. If we recollect rightly, they give up the etymology in despair as inexplicable, though Winander mere and various other meres were constantly before their eyes, either in nature or on paper. Dartmoor is represented as a naked morass, bounded on the north by bleak hills; but we are credibly informed, that it is the highest ground in that part of the island, sending rivers to the western and the southern channels; and that it is almost wholly composed of primæval granite. On looking at the map, we perceive that it has its meres also, for we see in one part some water, apparently the source of many rivers, entitled 'Cranmere pool,' probably a corruption of Grand mere.

We can safely recommend Dr. Aikin's work to the younger students; but our recommendation is accompanied with a sincere regret, that an able author should be only employed in such compilations, where he has had little more to do than to transcribe from letters and books. Are we to receive no more than one thin octavo volume of the Biographical Memoirs of Medicine; a work well executed, and which at least deserves encouragement?

VOL. LXVII. Juny, 1789.

G g

Observations

*Observations upon the Liturgy. With a Proposal for its Reform, upon the Principles of Christianity, as professed and taught by the Church of England. By a Layman of the Church of England, late an under Secretary of State. To which is added the Journals of the American Convention, appointed to frame an Ecclesiastical Constitution, and prepare a Liturgy for the Episcopal Churches in the United States. 8vo. 3s. De-
brett.*

THE 'Layman' is not perfectly well qualified to enter on discussions of the religious kind, because he professes that he has read and studied only the advocates for the Christian and established religion. But he comes forward with some success in the paths of scepticism and free enquiry, in his introduction to the proceedings of the convention.

His professed design is to offer some observations on the Liturgy; and the present conduct of the ministers of the Church of England. He is offended with those articles of faith being retained, which the minister who has sworn to believe them, during the future course of his life, is employed in explaining away; with some passages of the communion-service, which approach too near to the doctrine of the real presence; particularly with that answer in the catechism, where the body and blood of Christ are said to be 'verily and indeed taken' by the faithful in the Lord's Supper. He afterwards proceeds to the Creed, and is displeased with the 'descent into hell,' the 'Holy Catholic Church,' and 'the Communion of Saints.' Protestants indeed, know no church under this denomination, and none that has sufficient infallibility to require implicit faith. What he says of the spiritual nature of Christ after his resurrection, we shall transcribe without a comment.

'That Christ's body, though immaculate, was spiritualized in the sepulchre, may be fairly collected from what is said of it after his resurrection. When he makes himself known to Mary in the garden, who would immediately have laid hold of his feet, he says, *Touch me not, for I am not yet ascended to my father*; which I conceive to mean, "You cannot touch me Mary, for my body is now prepared to ascend to my father." And his sudden appearances, and vanishing from among his disciples at all other times before his ascension, gives good ground for this interpretation: nor do the instances which are often quoted of the materiality of his body contradict it, when closely examined. For when he blessed and brake the bread at Emmaus, it is not said that he eat it; and when he invited Thomas to thrust his finger into the prints of the nails, it is not said that Thomas did so, for he was satisfied with seeing them; as Christ himself says, *Because, Thomas, thou hast seen, (not touched)*

touch'd) *thou hast believed*; and although Peter says, *they* (the Apostles) *did eat and drink with him after he rose from the dead*, that does not imply that he ate and drank with them; and though St. Luke in his very abridged account in his Gospel of Christ's appearances, after his resurrection, says, that *he took the piece of broiled fish and honey-comb, and did eat before them*; he does not repeat his eating them in his introduction to the Acts; and St. John who is much more particular in relating that circumstance, says that Jesus, after desiring the disciples to *come and dine, cometh and taketh the bread, and giveth them, and fish likewise*; but does not say he ate any of either himself: and both Matthew and Mark are wholly silent upon the point. Indeed, the former says, the women, whom he first appeared to, *held him by the feet and worshipped him*; but this can only mean, that they fell at his feet, and would have held them, and kissed them, as one of them had done before his crucifixion, but that they were forbidden to do so in the words before quoted from St. John. There is no instance of Christ's entering a chamber to his disciples before his crucifixion, but in the manner of other men; and if no change had happened in his body after his death, or he had not intended that the apostles should perceive there was, it is not to be supposed that he would have done otherwise after his resurrection; but as he had now fully convinced them that *his kingdom* which they were so eager to see established, *was not of this world*, he might judge it proper to give them demonstrative evidence that their bodies might be rendered capable of entering into, and enjoying it, where it was to be. That Christ could render his body, however spiritualized, tangible as well as visible, there can be no doubt; and therefore his having been felt or handled, would by no means prove its materiality; but as many idle things have been said about the manner of his appearances and disappearance, I thought it right to examine the relations of the facts thus critically.

In other parts of the Liturgy our author is offended with the addressees to Christ, not on the Socinian plan, but because he directed us to address our prayers only to God; and with the appellation of the Son of David. Our layman is in general sufficiently orthodox; and while in our own bodies, which he supposes to consist of the material part, life and soul, we see three distinct principles united, we need not look abroad for illustrations of the Trinity. He sees no reason to think that the fall of the angels preceded the creation of man; and is of opinion that the deception of the serpent is more probable; since Eve, in the garden of Eden, may have been used to converse with angels under the form of flying serpents, though after that event, the more elevated animal was changed to a reptile, and angels appeared in the form of men. We believe much of this system is

raised on hypothesis; and Euler's discovery, which our author calls a late one, that in every revolution the earth narrows her orbit, is, we suspect, equally gratuitous. The work of Euler's is not mentioned; but the real distance of the sun was little known till the transit of Venus had been accurately observed, and since that period, the discovery could not easily be realized, unless we were falling rapidly into the that luminary.

We have given sufficient specimens of our author's opinions and manner: the rest of the work, which contains the minutes of the Convention, their public acts relating to the Liturgy, and their correspondence with the English bishops, is curious and entertaining. We have great reason to admire the steadiness, the mildness, and liberal sentiments of our prelates; and we ought not to omit paying some tribute of respect to the candour, the judgment, and the respectful attention of the members of the Convention.

Considerations on the Abolition of Slavery and the Slave Trade, upon Grounds of Natural, Religious, and Political Duty. 8vo. 2s. 6d. served. Elmsly.

WE are indebted for these Considerations to Mr. Burgess, of Christ Church, whose works we have often attended to with pleasure and advantage. This subject however is almost exhausted; though, as we are unwilling to pass over any work of this distinguished author in a few lines, we shall give a short account of his object, and expatiate a little on a point or two on which we have not hitherto been very explicit.

The first part of this work relates to Mr. Harris's Scriptural Researches; but these flimsy arguments have been answered again and again; nor is it, we think, consistent with Mr. Burgess's dignity, though closely connected with his design and situation, again to slay the slain. Our author's observations on slavery, as it is inconsistent with the precepts of the gospel, and hostile to the first principles of social morality, are of greater importance: in this part he is comprehensive and convincing.

When he turns to the refutation of the imputed cruelties, and of the assertion, that the slaves are happier than either the poor in England, or the Africans in their own country, he is not equally convincing: we admit the full force of the following passage; though we have some doubts of its application.

Where the poor slaves are considered as mere brutes of burden, it is no wonder that their happiness should be measured by the regular supply of mere animal subsistence. But the miseries of cold and want are light when compared with the miseries of a mind weighed down by irresistible oppression. The hardships

hardships of poverty are every day endured by thousands in this country, for the sake of that liberty, which the advocates of slavery think of so little value in their estimation of others' happiness, rather than relinquish their right to their own time, their own home, and their own scanty property to become the pensioners of a parish. And yet an English poorhouse has advantages of indulgence and protection which are incompatible with the most humane system of West Indian slavery. To place the two situations of the English poor, and West Indian slaves, in any degree of comparison, is a defamation of our laws; and an insult to the genius of our country.

If 'a native of Whydah and Angola has no wants but what his country can gratify,' as our author afterwards asserts, he has no wants but what are gratified in the retreat which every planter provides for his slaves. Why then must we measure the inclinations of the Negro with those of the Englishman in one respect, and hold them to be incommensurate in another? Our author has forgotten to compare their respective situations in illness, where, if there is any credit due to professional publications, we are informed that skill and humanity are generally blended in a much greater degree than by many parish apothecaries, and more comfortably than in many parish workhouses. The cruelties, which our author thinks are evinced by the mortality on the passage, and in seasoning, may be admitted; but, as our legislature has humanely obviated the first, we think the others will be greatly diminished.

We highly venerate the spirit of the English law, which, under Elizabeth, one of the most despotic of the arbitrary Tudors, declared that 'the air of England was too pure for a slave to breathe in.' We can add an equal encomium to that decision which emancipated Somerset the Negro, and eventually every purchased or hereditary slave during their residence in England. The uniform spirit of our argument has militated against the abuses of slavery; and, if they are abolished, we have contended that the rest of the dispute is about a word only.

We shall not dwell on the superior advantages which despotism in the parent country affords respecting the due observance of the regulations of slaves, because it is not now, and because the argument may be converted with still greater success. That Negroes are of a different species from ourselves may also be true, or false, without altering the question, which is not greatly elucidated by the mental acquisitions of this race. We have abstained from this part of the question because we thought it frivolous, and so weak an argument, that it showed a deficiency of every other. If Mr. Burgess condescends to use it, let

him point out 'the extraordinary efforts of imagination' in Phillis Wheatly's Poems; 'of moral judgment' in the Letters of Ignatius Sancho; 'of political prudence' in the Negro Governor of Loheia; or 'of abstract reasoning' in the Philadelphian Negro. We have attended much to the subject, but can find little except flowing rhymes in the poetess; the cant of affected sensibility in Sancho; general and disputable accounts of the governor; and a good memory, in Dr. Rush's Wonder of the African Race. If Mr. Burgess chuses to go beyond declamation we will meet the question with serious argument; but the attempt will be useless, because, whoever may be right, the great question will remain unchanged. Mr. Ramsay confesses that his Negroes were not very docile on subjects of religion: our author counterbalances this argument by remarks on the progress which Moravianism has made. He does not expand this argument, for if he had, it would be found that enthusiasm effected what calm reasoning could not perform; and this would not have added to the merit of the African.

It is not our purpose to enquire into motives; but it has afforded a subject of speculation to see Mr. Burgess descend to this controversy, and to behold him repeating hackneyed arguments and indiscriminate declamation. His general merits are well known; and, in this work, there is much classical purity of language, force of argument, and plausibility of representation. Yet in no respect does he stand in a higher line than many of his competitors; in some he sinks to a level, or below many authors on the same subject.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Histoire de la Société de Médecine, Années 1782, 1783. (Concluded from p. 309.)

WE shall now conclude our account of this important volume, which we have considered at a greater length, because we do not perceive that it is attended to in this country in proportion to its merits. The memoir which follows the account of the *tic doloieux*, is 'on the medical topography of High Auvergne,' a country whose antiquity and whole history, M. de Briende thinks, is of sufficient importance to claim some attention in the introduction. High Auvergne is composed of a chain of hills, which from its connection with the extinguished volcanos of Velay and Viverais, forms the continuation of the Alps of Savoy. Our author gives a good account of the natural history and productions of this country, which we cannot easily abridge. It is mountainous, he says, and these mountains are composed of granites and sand, resting

on a mass of argillaceous earth, and frequently interspersed with volcanos. This is not the common appearance of volcanic countries, for schisti are more frequently the seat of subterranean fires; but in this instance, the volcanos are distinct from the granite, which is sometimes found decomposed, and sometimes in part burned. Basaltes are also not uncommon: lavas of all the different kinds, schisti, coals, and clay, occasionally occur. The water is not always wholesome, and to this cause many of the diseases of cattle are owing.

The atmosphere is moist, cloudy, and often foggy; yet its elasticity is great, and favourable to the health of animals, though the sun is not sufficient to expand the more delicate plants of the neighbouring less elevated countries. The air seems to hasten consumptions, and to check the progress of nervous diseases; the province is subject to storms; and the winter lasts six or seven months. The inhabitants are neither tall nor active, but firm, steady, and robust: of little irritability, and a constitution which does not naturally soon decay. The bread is chiefly of rye, and the manner of living, if wine be excepted, is frugal and temperate.

In these sequestered mountains, the venereal disease is frequent; brought, it is said, by the emigrants; but its frequency contradicts the author's supposition, that it sometimes ceases spontaneously. Scrophula, in all its varieties, is endemic; and an eruption, seemingly of the pesterous kind, the scabies humida, is very common, yet it is cured by the application of sulphur. Other eruptions, particularly the goitre, are frequent; the last is sometimes cured by passing a seton through it. Ulcers of the legs, white swellings of the joints, particularly of the knee, phthisis pulmonalis, diseases connected with scrophuli, are often observed. That the latter is scrophulous, will be evident from the good effects of a saline mineral water, and its frequent occurrence in the country where milk and vegetables form the only subsistence. These mountaineers have also most of the other diseases which afflict human nature, and among them nervous diseases and fatuity are unexpectedly frequent. Putrid and inflammatory diseases are equally frequent and fatal. The closeness of the houses, and the warmth of the stoves favour both, either as they are confined at home, or expose themselves to the severe cold of the mountains. The dysentery does not seem to recur often, and the small pox was epidemic only five times in twenty-five years. The practice is little raised above empiricism; the regimen is the hot kind, and we find, as we may expect, the miliary fever by no means uncommon. We perceive nothing in this part of the memoir which deserves farther notice. As a piece of medical topography, it is clear, accurate, and well arranged; we have enlarged on it because this kind of information is uncommon in England: it would make a very useful part of our numerous volumes of 'memoirs' and 'observations.'

M. Tingry's analysis of some cruciferous plants shared the prize offered by the society for the best memoir on the following question: 'to determine, by analysis, the nature of those antiscorbutic plants taken from the family of cruciferae.' He employed the horse-radish, water-creffes, and scurvy grass, and first examined the pure spiritus rector: this oily fluid of plants, styled alkalescent, had an acid rather than an alkaline smell; but it showed not the least sign of acidity, or in reality of alkalescency. It seemed to contain a vapour or gas, not very different in its nature from an alkaline air, but by no means a formed alkali. When the spiritus rector was combined with an alkali, the odour was stronger, for the alkali seemed to seize the oil in which the gas was probably enveloped; but this smell soon disappeared, though it was again revived by an acid. The appearance and the smell of sulphur when this mixture was treated with vitriolic acid, is very doubtful: if any sulphur was formed in the experiment, we have no reason to suppose that it previously existed in the plant. In general, the spiritus rector is rather saline than oily, but it certainly, as we have hinted, contains oily matter, which appears to confine the alkali. The spiritus rector of aromatic plants is chiefly of an oily nature; yet each vegetable seems to consist of principles very different, perhaps essentially so, though the difference appears more often to consist in a peculiar modification, and a more or less intimate union of the particles.

The experiments on the expressed juices confirm, but add little to, these conclusions. The vegetable acid contained in the juices, for an acid was very evident, decomposed the salt of Sylvius, and the cream of tartar seemed to unite to the selenite in the juice. The extracts consisted of this acid, perhaps combined with the earth, as well as of gummy and resinous particles. To obtain the latter a new method was employed, which we shall extract, as it may be useful. Spirit of wine, it is well known, dissolves chiefly the resin, but its water contributes to dissolve part of the gum, and both are sometimes so intimately united, as to be taken up by the spirit without decomposition. We have seen, that to separate the gum of opium from the resin, was a task of no little difficulty, and the converse is, in the common methods, almost impracticable. Our author adds to a spirituous tincture an equal quantity of vitriolic æther, mixes them by agitation, and then pours as much water as he has added of æther: the resin is dissolved by the æther and the gum by the water: in this way the creffes alone seemed resinous: the great solubility of the extracts, however, in spirit of wine, seems to show that they approach nearly towards a resin, or rather as we suspect, that they are of a very soluble nature. When these extracts are calcined, they afford a volatile alkali, so that the matter of fire seems to be only required to change the gas into this salt. Yet the pungency does not depend on this salt, for the creffes afford a large proportion of it, while horse-radish gives out very little, and seems to contain a
grea

great proportion of acid, though this acid is certainly neutralized by the volatile alkali. The acid is contained in the secula, which is a real starch, and the horse-radish contains more of this secula than any other of the plants. In this vegetable, the secula is of two kinds, but the grey differs from the white in affording a thicker oil and some neutral salt. The secula of the other plants are either green, and contain resin and acid, or whitish, consisting of the parenchymatous part of the plant, and producing only volatile alkali.

After the aqueous infusions, spirit applied to the plant produces a tincture, which treated with æther is decomposed; but a substance remains neither dissolved by the æther or by water, and this our author, from a careful examination, thinks is wax. The incineration of the extracts gave vitriolated tartar, the sal febrifugus sylvii, selenire, calcareous earth, a little iron, sand, and mica. Cresses and scurvy-grass gave by lixiviation alone, a pure nitre. From some parts of the analysis we perceive traces of the marine acid.

The medical effects our author seems to attribute to the acidity, as the spiritus rector is so fugitive, that in the expression it often escapes; but the expressed juices are very inferior to the entire plant: if they have any action, it is probably owing, as M. Tingry supposes, to the acid. The spiritus rector, or in other words, the alkalescent gas, as a stimulant, may undoubtedly be of service. This memoir does not indeed go so far as we could wish, but it affords numerous well-digested facts, and these are arranged in the form of tables, so as to be seen at one view, and to be referred to with ease.

M. Gueret divided the prize with M. Tingry, and his memoir immediately follows; it is less extensive in its objects, and the researches are not so closely and intimately pursued. He confines himself to the horse-radish and the scurvy-grass; but as we cannot follow this author very minutely, we shall extract his own recapitulation with a few necessary additions.

The distilled water of the horse-radish, when its acrimony escapes by exposure to the air, seems at first to resemble in smell and taste a radish, and after a longer exposure, a turnip. Its spiritus rector is neither acid nor alkaline; it seems, he says, to contain sulphur already formed, which it holds in union with its oily principle, in consequence of its very minute division; but this sulphur seems to have no influence on the smell. The horse-radish affords a very heavy essential oil, which seems to contain of itself a little sulphur. Distillation, in a moderate degree of heat, or in that of boiling water, is the best method of treating aromatic plants, so as to prevent the separation of the sulphur. The roots dried with care lose little of their virtue, and the spiritus rector being partly disengaged from the oil, more readily combines with spirit of wine. The essential salt of the horse-radish is an acetated lime, not very different from the salt produced by the union of the common acetous acid with calcareous earth. By M. Parmentier's method of managing

managing potatoes, our author as well as M. Tingry, obtained a starch from the fresh root. Our author adds some additional experiments to show that it is by means of the oily principle that the sulphur of the horse-radish combines with spirit of wine. There are also some miscellaneous ones, on marum, whose spiritus rector reddens the tournesol, though it is not neutralized by alkalis.

Of scurvy grass, the distilled water was more pungent than the spiritus rector, but no tests could discover any acid or alkali in either. Each contains a little sulphur combined with the oil, which, however, has no influence on the smell, and is in smaller proportion than in the horse-radish. It cannot, however, like the last, preserve its properties when dried, as its texture is more lax, and its odorous principle more volatile, yet it still retains some sulphur. The expressed juice is a beautiful green, having a brisk pungent smell, and the bitter poignant taste of the plant. The fecula had neither the taste nor smell of the scurvy-grass, and afforded no sulphur: it contains also a yellowish substance, which may be separated from the green by the intermede of spirit of wine. When the juice is exposed to heat, a new fecula of a dirty grey colour is separated, but this too contains no sulphur; and our author is more positive that the sulphur is united to the odorous principle. The salts discovered in the extract were a muriated earth, some selenite, and a true sal ammoniac. The juice slowly evaporated, afforded a bitter extract very deliquescent; from which, with the assistance of spirit of wine, a little nitre crystallised in fine needles was separated. Of this extract, the part insoluble in spirit of wine, has little or no bitterness, and is not deliquescent. The soluble part is bitter and deliquescent, and the bitterness seems to reside in the resin, for it is wholly taken up by the æther, and deposited by adding water.

The next memoir is by M. Fourcroy, on the alteration which the animal fluids undergo by the effects of diseases and the action of remedies. The memoir is not, however, so extensive as the title seems to promise. He first treats of the bile, and the green colour which it assumes when it meets with superabundant acid in the stomach, or acid medicines are given. Its black colour is not very common; but our author has observed it in different cases, and even seen it so much inspissated, as to form a preternatural membrane in the intestines, like that from croup in the trachea. Since we reviewed the last volume of the Medical Memoirs, where a similar observation occurs, we have seen hardened mucus, seemingly from the small intestines, which has assumed their form, but in circumstances very little connected with diseases of the bowels: in reality, no uneasiness or diarrhoea preceded, and no change followed it. In ardent and bilious fevers, as well as in bilious peripneumonies, the colour of the urine and of the mucus seems to show that bile is evacuated by this organ; but in the urine,

urine, our author only found the resinous and colouring part of the bile. In the mucus he found the same. In the urine he mentions the phosphorated lime as the foundation of calculi; he traces the superabundant acid in the urine, and finds that its quantity is proportioned to the decay of the bony substance, either from age or disease. In children, and persons in health, it is in very small proportions. Our author hesitates whether he shall consider this acid as a cause, as a concomitant circumstance, or as an effect of disease, though he owns that it becomes a secondary cause. On trial, he found the phosphoric acid to corrode the bones more powerfully than even aqua fortis. M. de Fourcroy does not admit of any putrefaction of the fluids, since the smallest quantity of the putrid blood injected into the veins of an animal was almost instantly fatal. In the scurvy he allows the blood to be unusually fluid, but thinks it rather owing to a defect in its preparation, than to a putrid degeneracy after it is formed.

The next memoir is by the same author, on the nature of the muscular fibre, and the seat of irritability. This essay is an abridgment of the chemical doctrine of the nature of the fluids: the three last classes, the mucilaginous, the albuminous or lymphatic, and the glutinous, are the chief objects. The last is the fibrous part of the blood, and of this the muscles are said to be formed. It is a highly animalized substance, giving out on the first impression of heat, volatile alkali, next a thick oil, and afterwards a very brown and fetid water, leaving a residuum which burns slowly and with difficulty. But this fluid in the progressive state from the foetus, appears mucilaginous and albuminous before it assumes the last form, which is compatible only with firm health and strength. Its force increases and decays with the various changes of health and disease, while its decay is always attended with languor and inactivity. So far our author has done well, and in a great part of this discussion he was preceded by Dr. Cullen; but the peculiar organization of muscles he has not examined.

M. Thouret's enquiries on the different degrees of compression of which the head of the foetus is susceptible, are drawn out by an insupportable tautology to a great length. As the base of the skull is incompressible, the diminution can only be the difference between the base and the arch, which our author thinks does not exceed seven lines, and is more commonly equal to half an inch. On these grounds he condemns extracting the child by the feet and the use of the forceps, which fill up near one half of that space. When the pelvis is only $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, or from that to $2\frac{3}{4}$ even perforation, our author suspects, on the authority of some German accoucheurs, will not succeed. But in truth, his whole memoir is not less deficient in just reasoning than in a knowledge of facts: we shall not enlarge farther on it, or add a single remark.

Abortions among cattle seem to be contagious in some parts of France. The abbé Tessier gives some account of the fact. In

the Beauce, where it chiefly happens, cows are shut up in stables, and this unnatural mode of living sometimes occasions miscarriage. In these instances, the coyledons (placentæ) do not follow: they suppurate, and by the stench occasioned, the health of other cows is affected. The same author gives an account of the advantages of migrations, to preserve flocks from diseases.

M. D'Aubenton has analyzed the stone for setting lancets, which is very rare and very dear: it is a green jasper, but the red jasper and some schoerls answer pretty well.

M. Lavoisier's memoir on the alterations which take place in the air, in many circumstances inseparable from men united in society, is very curious. Atmospheric air, it is well known, consists of about 27 parts of vital air, and 63 of mephitic in 100 parts. But air in which a Guinea-pig had breathed for an hour and a half, was diminished $\frac{1}{10}$ part of its bulk, though its weight was increased seemingly by something which had changed the vital into fixed air; that is, says our author, coaly matter. Besides, he thinks some portion of the air inspired does not return in an elastic state, for it is either absorbed by the blood, or forms water with the inflammable air; so that the proportion of coaly matter is greater than it appears at first sight to be. It seems probable also, that vital air is not alone sufficient to carry on life, for an animal suffers greatly after some confinement in it, though it appears so little injured, as to be better than common air, and though another animal still lived some time in it without inconvenience. The salubrity of air, therefore, consists in a due proportion of vital air and mephitic. In a hospital much crowded, when opened in a morning, the air near the floor was little altered; that near the ceiling was much injured. The air in the upper boxes of a theatre was greatly injured. The experiment is incomplete; but this, with some farther enquiries on the subject, our author means to pursue in the next volume.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

IT is now necessary to return to Natural History, for the numerous novelties in that branch demand our attention; and, since on examining our list, we perceive no article of a nature so temporary, or an importance so striking, as to claim a priority, we shall pursue the usual plan of naturalists in the three kingdoms of nature, and afterwards examine those general subjects which relate to them more indiscriminately.

Man is the first among animals; but what relates to him, in general, regards his structure, his health, or his diseases. In the view of the philosopher, the different species of man, if there are different species, are of importance. In America, particularly in the American islands, is a race of men, though apparently distinct, yet little known, the Caribbs; of these there is a red or a copper-coloured race, and a black; the latter are probably

probably negroes, thrown by accident on the coast, which have incorporated with the native Americans, and in some islands, particularly St. Vincent, have driven them away, or destroyed them. M. Arthaud has examined one of their heads with the attention of an anatomist, finds it of a very peculiar form, which he contends, with much force of argument, and some probability, cannot be owing to ligatures. If it were possible to change the shape of the head by this means, it must be remembered that the Caribbs only employ them for nine days, which can have no very permanent effect. In the skull before him the fore part of the head is flattened, except towards the top, where there is seemingly a tuberosity, and this flattening is more apparent in the centre than on the sides: in reality, from the eye-brows the bones have a sudden but a slight curvature to the top of the head: the forehead seems destroyed. The parietal bones partake of this flatness before, and rise in the centre and towards the hinder parts. The occipital bone is convex above, and seems flattened and depressed below. The orbits are very large, but not proportionally deep; and the upper part of the cavity seems brought forward in a very particular angle. The zygomatic processes are much raised, and the maxillary ones depressed. The eyes seem to have been large and full; the nose short and flat; the face wide and flat. Though the construction was peculiar, we think, with our author, that it must have been wholly natural.

As Linnæus has told us that the cetacea are nearly allied to man, we must turn to some observations on two fish of this genus, lately stranded on the banks near Honfleur. As a spectacle of this kind at the mouth of the Seine is uncommon, vast numbers flocked to see them, and among the rest M. Bausard, a lieutenant in the sea-service, to whom we are indebted for the description. These animals seemed to be a mother and her young; and, unlike other fish, when the young one was left on the shore, the mother's anxiety and agitation were strongly marked by the most violent bellowings and the most extravagant efforts. The young one was above thirteen feet three inches English; the mother was nearly twenty-five feet six inches. The bulk of the first, measured at the origin of the thoracic fins, was above eight feet and a half; of the second, above sixteen feet and a half. We pretend not to give the anatomical description with exactness; but shall select a fact or two of importance. The capacity of the skull was in both nearly the same; but the strength and firmness of the bones was greater in the old one. The organs of hearing did not differ in size, when compared; so true is it that in every organ of importance and of immediate necessity in the more perfect animals, nature does not find evolution an easy task. The heart, we speak now of the mother, was two feet long and as many wide, composed of a single ventricle only. The lungs were flat, terminated in points, a foot wide, and two feet long. It had three stomachs, one

one large and two small, so that it appears to be a ruminant animal. The small stomachs had three coats, the inner one fleshy (we suppose thickly set with red villi), the next muscular, and the outer one, which is said to be of the same kind, is probably membranous. The stomachs, we suspect that our author means the two little ones, had two valves of communication, of a round form, to facilitate the passage of the food, and ultimately to assist digestion. The nipple was composed of a fleshy, nervous, and arterial substance, with a vast number of small oblong cells, full of milk. It extended from the cavity in which it is placed internally, two or three feet towards the head. The milk was of a dirty white colour, and of a vapid taste. The matrix was membranous and fleshy. It was about three feet long, and could with difficulty contain the arm of the fisherman who dissected it. A phosphorescent light proceeded from it in dissection; and, when foetid, the air was not only very offensive, but caustic and deleterious. It is not easy to reduce these fish to any known species; but the abbé Diquemaire described one of the same kind in 1764. It must however be confessed that our knowledge of these monarchs of the ocean, these swimming men, is very limited.

Respecting real fish, we have little to notice, except a well written memoir on the migration of herrings, published in the Journal of Normandy, by M. Noel Moriniere. The herring, bred in the vast regions of the arctic ocean, appears in the spring off the coast of Shetland, and divides into different shoals, some take the route of Newfoundland and Labrador; others that of Norway, Jutland, the Baltic, and the Gulf of Bothnia. But the principal body, arriving at the Orcades, surrounds Scotland and England. The eastern branch arrive in August on the coast of Yorkshire; in another month they reach the Straits, and in September fill the English Channel. Our author does not describe the mode of taking herrings properly: he seems never to have been on an expedition of this kind, which we have repeatedly witnessed. It is of some importance, however, to be informed, that a bishop on the sea-coast once solemnly excommunicated the porpoises, the violent enemy of the herring, and that not one appeared during the remainder of the season. In France the fishing continues till the end of December; but, from the beginning of the month, the herrings have no longer any roes. They escape from the Channel, their numbers indeed diminished; but, as has been supposed, if the whole race be considered, scarcely by one from every million: our author does not follow them; but we have already seen them on the coast of America, in our review of the second volume of the Philadelphia Transactions. He purposes to give a more extensive account of this singular fish; in the mean time we may remark, that he has found traces of the fishery in 1389, in a voyage preserved in the fifteenth volume of the Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions.

M. Pothonier

M. Pothonier told us lately, in the *Journal de Paris*, that he had seen a real salamander. While he was in the isle of Rhodes, writing in his cabinet, he heard a great noise in the kitchen. He went there, and the cook cried, 'that the devil was in the fire.' He looked and saw, in a pretty brisk fire, a lizard; but he seemed panting for breath, and his throat greatly swelled. The animal remained immovable, but on his attempting to seize it with the tongs, it endeavoured to escape, and concealed itself in some hot ashes. He at last caught it; but we know not whether he was alive or dead. M. Buffon, to whom it was given, found it, he says, very different from any that he had seen. This story seems to have been drawn from M. Pothonier, by some remarks on too great credulity in this respect in the count de la Cepedes' late work; but, from the well-known structure of the salamander, we think it may be accounted for without a miracle. It escaped probably from wood put on the fire; and its body, studded with glands, which furnish a milky fluid, throws out this substance when exposed to fire, and the animal is soon surrounded with a steam which absorbs heat. He was, however, from all appearances, in a very inconvenient situation; and the author, who says he looked at it for two or three minutes, might easily have been mistaken while his attention was so much engaged.

M. Badier gives a curious account of the scolopendra polype, which he discovered in some bladder-weed at Guadaloupe. It is a long annulated animal, whose head expands not unlike a half-opened passion-flower deprived of its leaves. It is propagated by a spontaneous division into four parts; but the green scolopendra polype divides uniformly into two. The abbé Dique-maire, whose discoveries we have often recorded, and whose death we have just heard of (May 27), has lately given us some information on the multiplication of the large sea-polypus. This animal, in its little sphere, is not unlike the eagle and the lion; as these animals rule in the air and in the forest, the large sea-polypus rules over those insects which inhabit rocks. Its policy and its fury are equally conspicuous; and all the shell-fish yield to its attacks, or escape from his depredations. The object of this luxurious animal is the softest and most delicate internal parts, for the rest it leaves, and the force as well as the extent of its arms render it a very formidable enemy. Our author has counted seventeen hundred of these organs in an animal of a moderate size, and one of these separated from it twisted round his arm with so much force as to make red and white wheals. Another separated member was fixed so firmly to a rock as almost to elude his strength to separate it. When we reflect that the animal can extend them almost eight English feet around, and act with them so powerfully, we cannot wonder at the effects; but we must smile at those philosophers who have called it a plant. A woman wading in the water up to her waist has been seized by the arms of one of these polypi, which have twined

twined round her legs, and she would have been drowned if not rescued by some strong men. A swimmer, if caught in this manner, must inevitably perish. Yet, when left dry on the rocks, they endeavour to escape notice by shrinking into an apparently inorganic mass, or into a body shaped like a wheel. In May 1779, our author found a cluster of the eggs of the large sea-polypus, left by the ebbing tide on a bank of shells. It contained about 800 eggs, and each egg had 25 polypi in distinct cells. The eggs are transparent like white glass; and one cluster must hold twenty thousand insects; but each female was found to afford at least twenty clusters, which must contain four hundred thousand animals. Probably these eggs afford food for some fish, and the young ones to others, for a very small proportion come to their full size. The eggs are different from those of the cuttle-fish, with which they have been confounded: the latter are in clusters like grapes, of a black colour, firm texture, highly elastic, and full of a white fluid. We have often seen them on our coast, where they are sometimes called sea-grapes. One egg only contains one animal. The sea-polypus is also found on our coast, and the small ones are fished up in nets, designed for other game. Among the fishermen we have heard them called the sea-spider. They generally reside at the extremity of rocks, towards the sea, and when the tide flows their extended arms are very conspicuous. The abbé, since the publication of which we have given an account, has communicated from his *portefeuille* some observations on those animals, which, in their forms, resemble flowers, and are consequently called floriforms. He establishes a curious criterion between animals and plants, for he considers those beings as animals which are conscious of their existence; but, in his explanation, the distinction is much more accurate. He confines the former name to beings whose motions are not regular and unvaried, the result of organization, but to those which possess voluntary motion regulated by circumstances. This floriform seems to possess a peduncle, corolla, petals, stamina, and a pistil. When we looked at the plate, without knowing to what it belonged, we thought it a flower, or at least the remains of a flower. But it eats, rejects some food, and swallows food of a different kind, and will occasionally eat what it once seemed to dislike. The form we have already described; the colour is of a dirty white, and its substance semitransparent. It has a source, an origin of sensibility, for we dare not call it a brain, and an organ in which digestion is carried on: its arms are muscular, and their extremities appear acutely sensible. The attempt to form a German nomenclature of animals, or to establish a vernacular zoological language, demands our commendation, though the execution is not excellent. It is perhaps sufficient to mention it. The abbé Tessier's work on the cultivation of the cactus, and management of the cochineal insect in the French colonies, which formerly escaped our attention, can at this time be only mentioned.

ed. The abbé is a member of the Philadelphic Society, established at Cape François, with a view to converse on physics, agriculture, medicine, and natural history, as well as to form a collection of every thing which may be useful or interesting to the island of St. Domingo. M. Arthaud, whose communication respecting the head of a Caribb we have mentioned in this sketch, is a member of the same society.

In stepping from the animal to the vegetable kingdom, we must resume a dispute of which we formerly gave a short account. We observed that M. Reynier had revived, with some modifications, the system of Buffon relative to organised molecules: with the assistance of M. Medicus he has resumed this controversy, and not only endeavoured to support it in general, but grounded on it some additional attacks on the sexual system of Linnæus. He is of opinion that all organised beings are formed by a species of crystallization, or rather a juxtaposition of particles adapted to form a proper union. A hint of this kind, in Meherie's *Vues Physiologiques*, p. 406, on animal organization, seems to have induced him to fix on the *Journal de Physique* as the vehicle of his opinions. The lichen *radiciformis*, he observes, grows in profusion in a lead mine of St. Mary. All the old wooden supporters are covered with it; and the plant may be found in all the stages of its growth. A drop of water, he says, hangs on the wood, and this drop becomes more mucilaginous, *by receiving a new quantity of organic matter*. The base hardens, and the extremity becomes more opaque as it approaches to the body of the plant. When the lichen is a few inches long, the drop disappears, the plant is evolved and nourished by external organs: its colour becomes yellowish, brown, and black, in succession. It is certain, he thinks, that the plant is not formed, at first at least, by an *intus susception*, for it has in its origin the same dimensions which it preserves; and its extremity, where the molecules, which flow with the water on the surface unite, point out the mode of its formation. The molecules come, in our author's opinion, from the wood, but from whence comes the water? and what artifice induces these molecules, which once crystallized in the form of wood, now to undergo a new arrangement in a lichen? We do not see that the fact adduced proves any thing; for admitting that the water came from the earth, which is very probable, it might easily bring with it the seed, and seeds can never be wanting even from the air, while, from necessity, currents of air must be admitted in every mine. An argument on the opposite side may be brought from remarking, that all the plants adduced as instances are those which have microscopic seeds. If our author ever finds an oak in a mine where he can prove no acorn has been planted we will admit his system; but seeds, which are confessedly the sport of winds, which float in the air, and lie long concealed and unhurt in water, may find their way to the most obscure recesses.

His assistant, M. Medicus, has attacked also the vegetable nature of mushrooms. He has quoted a vast number of ancient authors, who knew not what they were, to show that we are equally ignorant at present. Gleditsch, Haller, and Hedwig, are authorities which might, in our opinion, be successfully opposed to a host of such as Dioscorides, Matthiolus, and Pliny. Our author thinks that mushrooms are really of vegetable origin, but that they are owing to a new arrangement of the parts of a decomposed vegetable, by the medium of water and of heat. Let us select a few of his arguments. It is forbidden, he says, to burn the pasture in the Marche of Brandenburg, which the inhabitants were accustomed to do, that they might obtain morels; 'now, says he, if the seed of a mushroom existed, the heat would destroy it.' How easy to convert the argument!—The heat may as probably be supposed to have been necessary to the evolution of the seeds kept from the genial warmth of the sun by the grass. Again, horse-dung produces mushrooms better than any other manure; but this dung contains more vegetable matter, decomposed only in part, than any other substance of the same kind. 'When the dung is fresh it produces the *agaricus fimetarius*; but when it has lost part of its power, the esculent mushroom. How is this consistent with the theory of seeds?' We need not fill our page with answers to these questions, which occur to every attentive enquirer; but the author thinks he has established some important conclusions, among which are the following: substances wholly putrid do not produce mushrooms, for they seem to be owing to vegetables in their first state of decomposition. The first appearance is a kind of net-work, which in time hardens and is lengthened by the rising of white points. The author speaks a little unintelligibly of a new plastic impulse, which appears to be founded on an elastic and an attractive force. He is not aware that this system is more intricate and unintelligible than the minuteness of the smallest seed. This matter is, however, capable of being brought to a short issue. Mushroom-beds are common in England. The seed is sown by burying mushrooms, cut in small pieces, in the manure: we pretend not that a fungus of the same kind only with that which is sown comes up, though we know the crop to be almost wholly of the esculent kind, and scarcely, in any instance, mixed with a great number of the others; but, on our author's system, there is no reason to be given why one kind should be more prevalent than another.

M. Reynier has replied shortly to M. Brugnatelli respecting the castration of plants; but his arguments, for he adduces no new experiments, are founded on a misapprehension, and consequently the opinions as well as the experiments of Linnæus are misrepresented. We can follow his associate, M. Medicus, in a future letter addressed to him, with more satisfaction. It relates to classification of plants; and, though directed in part against

against Linnæus, contains many just observations. He urges strongly the propriety, and even necessity of attending to natural orders, or, as he calls them, families of plants, by which those vegetables are most closely connected, which have, in all their parts, the closest resemblance. It is perfectly right that botanists should labour to obtain not only an artificial but a natural system; but it is equally proper that the general classification should be artificial, for this obvious reason, that it is necessary to know plants in general, to be able to find them in a system, and to refer to them others with which they are connected, before they can be examined so closely as to ascertain their place in a natural classification. His particular criticisms, in which M. Cavanilles has had a great share on account of his following Linnæus too closely, and his parallel between Linnæus and Tournefort, where the prize is indisputably given to the latter, would be too extensive for our limits. We may just mention, that before the generic name of a plant belonging to a natural class, he proposes to add the name by which the plant is in general known; as we say commonly it is a lily, a geranium, or a fir, though neither the generic nor the specific names in an artificial system may chance to resemble either. This plan will probably be occasionally useful. The parallel is however unfair, because Linnæus and Tournefort were in very different circumstances. No admirer of Linnæus would despise the French botanist; and to give him every praise cannot detract from the merit of the 'Pliny of the North.' We may just add, that M. Gouan, in an elementary work on botany, lately published at Montpellier, has defended Linnæus very ably.

M. Cavanilles, whose successive dissertations we have pointed out, continues his labours, but has occasioned another controversy, which we shall explain shortly. His fifth Dissertation is on the *buttneria sterculia*, *kleinhovia*, and *ayenia*, which he has reduced to the class *monadelphia*, because the stamina are united in a single body; on the *bombax*, *adansonia*, *crinodendrium*, *aitonia*, *malachodendrium*, *stewartia*, and *napæa*. The two last, which the abbé has separated, are united in Linnæus, under the former name. It is adorned with thirty-six plates, beautifully executed. The sixth Dissertation concludes Linnæus's *monadelphia*, and contains the *camellia gordonia*, *morisonia*, *gossypium*, *waltheria*, *melochia*, *mahernia*, *hermannia*, *urena*, *haleia*, *styrex*, *galaxia*, *ferraria*, and *sisyrrinchium*. The *mahernia* and *hermannia*, of which some authors have formed a single genus, and Linnæus has scattered in different parts of his system, our author has properly distinguished: the former has filiform stamina, surmounted with a glandular heart-shaped body very near the antheræ; while in the latter the stamina are membranous, and larger than the anthera. The last has five styles, and the first one only. The five last genera the abbé has first added to this class. The last genus has three new species; the *urena* four; *Waltheria* three;

the gossypium two. Two other Dissertations will contain those monadelphious plants which Linnæus has scattered through his works, of which one has appeared, and the other is in the press.

M. Heretier, the author of a work entitled *Stirpes Novæ aut minus Cognitæ*, of which the fifth fasciculus is published, though we have not yet received it, and its delay has been the only reason of our omitting to give some account of this very splendid design: M. Heretier, we say, who has with great candour corrected his errors respecting the monctia and some other species, has been attacked by the abbé Cavanilles with great violence. As the attack relates to the fifth fasciculus, it will not be easy for us to give an impartial account of it; and at the same time the dispute would not be very interesting. The abbé attacks M. Heretier for copying from his Dissertation without any acknowledgment; and improperly antedating his publication, with a view to claim the priority in the discovery. It is certain, that of the four fasciculi which lie before us, the date of the second, third, and fourth is the same, viz. 1785; and the fifth, which has just appeared, is of the same year. In more than one instance too M. Heretier seems to have interpolated new sheets and new plates. He has answered M. Cavanilles with much haughtiness; and the accusation, respecting the real inaccuracies in the plates, which the abbé has also pointed out, he has not replied to very satisfactorily.

[To be concluded in the Appendix.]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POETRY.

The Sorrows of Slavery, a Poem. Containing a faithful Statement of Facts respecting the African Slave Trade. By the Rev. J. Jamieson, A. M. F. A. S. S. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

THE author professes that he has carefully, through the whole of the poem, avoided exaggeration, has related only simple historical facts, faithfully stated from the publications of the rev Messrs. Ramsay, Clarkson, Newton, &c. But is he sure that these gentlemen have not sometimes exaggerated? Professed advocates on any subject are apt to be led away by the warmth of their feelings; and, in a case like the present, where they must be peculiarly interested, may we not suppose, without impeaching those gentlemen's veracity, which we trust was never designedly violated, that fancy and prepossession has sometimes varied, and deepened the colour of the objects they so earnestly contemplated?

'The wish'd-for haven gain'd, its shelly bed
The massive anchors press. The trembling slaves
Are hid below, left sharp-ey'd Merchandise

Should

Should thro' their sable covering, threadbare worn,
 The whiteness of their tell-tale bones espy.
 Nor hard were the discovery; for of some,
 Thro' constant friction on the naked boards,
 Their only bed, and galling of the filth
 Worse than Augean, the presumptuous bones
 Their feeble boundaries scorn, and gaze abroad;
 As weary captives thro' their prison-grate.
 Poor, scanty remnant of a vigorous swarm!
 The half-chew'd fragments of a thousand meals
 Devouring Death has made, his many mouths
 Of melancholy, madness, famine, sword,
 Scourge, halter, musket, manifold disease
 Wide-opening, as his changeful taste requir'd;
 The mangled morsels left to fill his maw,
 His appetite when keener!

In this, and many other similar passages, we must surely at least make some allowance for poetical exaggeration. It is, however, no unfavourable specimen of the performance, which is sometimes debased by low and awkward expressions; and, though many observations are sensible and interesting, yet they are in general such as have been before expressed with greater strength and elegance. The poem is divided into three books. The first gives an account of the methods used to procure slaves on the Guinea coast; the second considers their treatment while at sea; and the third their situation in the West Indies.

Verses on his Majesty's Recovery. By Samuel Hayes, A. M.
 4to. 1s. Cadell.

The loyalty of the author is more conspicuous than his poetical powers. The diction is smooth and easy, but there is little else to be found deserving approbation.

The Thanksgiving Day. A Poem 4to. 1s. Egerton.

This is written on the same occasion, and in the same, or rather more elevated, panegyric strain: what advantage, however, it has in spirit and animation, is counterbalanced by puerility and bombast. The following lines will strike the reader as a peculiar instance of them; and we can assure him there is scarcely a page in which he will not find them intermixed in the same striking manner.

' While silence and while peace the palace crown,
 And George and Charlotte sink on virtues down,
 Not so their subjects— they, a splendid day
 Now introduce to luminate the way,
 The various colours of the Iris show,
 And bend on earth her sun-reflected bow.
 The light'nings gleam where'er the curious pass,
 And fill with opal hues the polish'd glass.
 While stars, eccentric, shoot a blaze of light,
 The rockets glow, like comets, on the sight;

And serpents are like trailing meteors hurl'd—
 The constellations of this lower world,
 No wonder that such beaming glories shine,
 And earthly luminations seem divine,
 When Banks and Reynolds give their mutual aid,
 To strike a sun-beam from a barren shade,
 And midst the light of a nocturnal ray,
 Produce their King to give a real day.'

Gynomachia; or, a Contest between two old Ladies, in the Service of a celebrated Orator. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walter.

A contest between Mr. Burke's political and his moral conscience appeared at first sight a source of pleasant raillery; the etching prefixed to the work was also characteristical and humorous; but the performance is a tedious homily from each opposing speaker, without humour to attract, or wit to entertain; shewing how Mr. Burke opposed lord North, coalesced with lord North; how he defended America, curtailed the perquisites of the king's scullions, with many curious devices, told a thousand times, and ten thousand times repeated.—Walk in, gentlemen, we ask but two and six-pence a piece!

Miserio's Vision. A Poem. 4to. 1s. Baldwin.

The moral of this little performance is a proper resignation to the decrees of Providence; but its execution is not so happy as the intent was laudable.

The Temple of Health. A Poetic Vision. By a Lady. 4to. 1s. 6d. Williams.

We meet with nothing strikingly defective, or eminently beautiful in this poem: the plan on which it is formed is not without merit; some of the characters introduced, though not strongly marked, are described in a pleasing manner, and the diction is smooth and easy.

The Poor Soldier. An American Tale: founded on a recent Fact. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walter.

The story on which the poem is founded, bears strong marks of veracity, and is extremely interesting. The author seems to write from the feelings of humanity. She is not possibly entitled to any great degree of *positive praise* for her style and her mode of conducting it; and at the same time we must allow that it is not *badly* told.

Poetical Essays. By the rev. William Atkinson, M. A. 4to. 1s. Knott.

'For five years (says Mr. Atkinson) in the earlier part of my days, I dedicated six months in each year to close application and study; after intense thought, if ever I was capable of any such thing, I used to relax in company with this friend of human weakness, and found amazing pleasure in poetry.' We are glad that he has felt this inward satisfaction, as we otherwise

Wife should consider the time as rather unprofitably spent. 'This friend of human weakness' appears to have been but little indulgent to him in his imbecility, of which the introductory lines to the first pastoral may serve as a sufficient proof:

'The mead was cut, the sun had dried the hay,
The hinds grew jocund at the close of day,
Each one his *lassy* took; yet than the rest
Two graver seem'd, *their* love was not in jest;
He led her round behind a neighbo'ring tree,
There vow'd his passion on his bended knee.'

These Essays are mentioned in the title-page as a second edition, but we do not recollect the first.

S L A V E - T R A D E.

The Code of Laws for the Government of the Negro Slaves in the Island of Jamaica. Published for the Use of both Houses of Parliament, and the Satisfaction of the Public at large. By Stephen Fuller, Esq. Agent for Jamaica. 4to. 1s. White and Son.

We have no reason to doubt of Mr. Fuller's assertion, that every year produces new regulations in favour of slaves, because it is impossible that men, even of bad dispositions, can be long blind to their own interests; and others will have the additional incentive of humanity to induce them to co-operate in the same design. This act seems well calculated for the advantages and comforts of the Negro, while it contains effectual checks to secure its being enforced. It is, in part, the same with the consolidated act of 1781; but contains many additional clauses, and more strict obstacles in the way of wanton and capricious inhumanity. As the legislature, alarmed at the magnitude of the object, seems at present * willing to defer the decision, it will be perhaps found that, with the salutary act of the last session, enough has been done to secure the slave, and as much as good policy or even humanity may require for the present; since rash and violent innovations often prevent the good effects for which they are designed, and which more prudent and cautious measures would secure.

Two Reports from the Committee of the Honourable House of Assembly of Jamaica, on the Subject of the Slave Trade. Published, by Order of the House of Assembly. By Stephen Fuller, Esq. Agent for Jamaica. 4to. 1s. White and Son.

These Reports, with the examination of the physicians annexed, are, on the whole, very satisfactory, even if allowance be made for the wish which the assembly must naturally feel to represent the conduct of the planters in a favourable light. In these Reports the alterations in the new act are particularly pointed out; the Assembly explain many of the causes of the

* June 1, 1789.

mortality of the Negroes and of the Negro children; they express themselves well pleased with the regulations which took place in the trade last year, and wish to add some others, which we shall transcribe:

‘The committee are of opinion, that the principle of the said act of the British parliament is founded in justice, humanity, and necessity; and that the provisions adopted therein, when further matured by the wisdom of parliament, must ultimately prove highly beneficial to the sugar colonies, inasmuch as it is notorious, that vessels have been frequently crowded with a greater number of negroes than they ought in prudence to have contained. And it is the opinion of the committee, that the wisdom and authority of parliament might be beneficially exerted, in further regulations of the African commerce; particularly, in preventing the detention of ships on the coast; in prohibiting the purchase of slaves who shall appear to have been kidnapped, or deprived of liberty contrary to the usage and custom of Africa; and in compelling the said ships to transport an equal number of both sexes, and to provide ventilators, and a sufficient quantity of provisions, especially water.’

We cannot avoid adding, that the temper, the moderation, and the judgment which appear to have dictated these Reports, in opposition to factious clamour, unjust invective, and exaggerated accusations, must leave the most favourable impression on the minds of the readers.

A Cool Address to the People of England, on the Slave Trade. By Thomas Maxwell Adams, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Faulder.

By some accident a very improper word has crept into the title page; and for ‘cool’ must be read violent and passionate. It required some ingenuity to suppose that the societies for abolishing the slave trade really wished to emancipate the slaves. This mistake has not, we suspect, been always accidental. Mr. Adams is so warm that, if he had committed greater errors, we should not have considered them as wilful ones.

Considerations upon the fatal Consequences of abolishing the Slave Trade, in the present Situation of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Our author with great calmness, but we suspect not with equal impartiality, warns his countrymen against abolishing the slave trade. With respect to the situation of the Negroes, he observes, that happiness is relative, connected with former habits and particular propensities; that they seem to enjoy the happiness to which they were accustomed, and which they probably prize higher than any other situations; so that the inhumanity attached in the ideas of many to Negro slavery is probably visionary. As to our abolishing the trade, he contends that the consequences of the measure would be fatal. From a balance of three millions, which we annually received
from

from our commercial transactions in the interval between the peace at Paris and the commencement of the American war, we have now sunk to one third of the sum; and half of this, he insinuates, is furnished by the African slave trade!!!

D I V I N I T Y.

A Sermon preached in the Cathedral Church of Ely, on Thursday, April 23, 1789, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving to Almighty God for his Majesty's happy Recovery. By Cæsar Morgan, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

A loyal and classical composition, on a subject which so much interests every true Englishman, as to hide faults even if they existed.

A Thanksgiving Sermon, occasioned by the happy Recovery of his present Majesty, from his late dangerous Indisposition. Preached on April 23, 1789, before the Society of Protestant Dissenters at Mansfield. By Samuel Catlow. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

Audi alteram partem! The Dissenter is equally loyal with the Churchman; and his discourse is not only correct, but, in many parts, polished with elegance.

P O L I T I C A L.

Advice to the Servants of the Crown in the House of Commons of Ireland. Containing Advice to a Lord Lieutenant's Secretary. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The author of this pamphlet seems to have borrowed his subject from Dean Swift's *Advices*, which he extends from the sphere of domestic life to the servants of the crown. Proceeding in the steps of his great original, he discovers no despicable vein of ironical satire, intermixed with a plausible knowledge of political life. What degree of attention his admonitions will meet with in the quarter for which they are calculated, we leave to his own observation.

An Address to his Majesty on his happy Recovery; with a short Review of his Reign: some Remarks on the late Procession to St. Paul's, and the reported Voyage to Hanover: with the Characters of a pious King, a patriot Prince, and an imperious Minister. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley.

This address is not a loyal and affectionate congratulation on his majesty's happy recovery, but a petulant, invidious, indiscriminating invective on the royal conduct, the measures, and almost all the administrations of the present reign. It contains no observations that have not been hackneyed in political pamphlets, and has nothing that can excite the reader's attention but the vehemence of studied malignity. It seems to be the author's design to endeavour to repress, as much as possible, the public joy and gratitude at an event which humanity alone might be sufficient to render universally interesting to the nation.

D R A M A T I C.

The Hymeneal Party: or, the Generous Friends. A Comedy. By a young Gentleman. 8vo. 2s. Stalker.

The author we are told is but nineteen, and this must be his excuse for numerous defects. A bold defiance of probability in the conduct of his plot is not one of the least of his offences.

The Pannel. An Entertainment of Three Acts. Altered from the Comedy of 'Tis Well 'tis no Worse. Performed at the Theatre Royal in Drury-Lane. 8vo. 1s. Stalker.

Bickerstaff's pleasant comedy of 'Tis Well it's no Worse,' failed, notwithstanding the exertions of Mrs. Abingdon and Mr. King. Perhaps the plot was not sufficiently strong for comedy. If this was the reason, Mr. Kemble has acted judiciously in preserving its chief farcical incident, and curtailing it to the size of an after-piece: that it probably was so, its present popularity seems to have proved.

N O V E L S.

Agnes de Courci, a domestic Tale. By Mrs. Bennet, Author of the Welch Heiress and Juvenile Indiscretions. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Robinsons.

We have been acquainted with Mrs. Bennet in consequence of her former works. The first novel we examined in our LIXth volume, p. 476. and found it interesting, without deserving great praise or much blame. The 'Juvenile Indiscretions' were more faulty: they occur in our LXIId vol. p. 68. and we considered them as pleasing in general, but improbable in their conduct, and so free in their descriptions, that we suspected the female character to have been an assumed one. Agnes rises higher to the scale of excellence, and does not deserve the censures which Mrs. Bennet's former works extorted. The story is intricate, but it is wound up with great dexterity and evolved with skill. When we say so much it should be considered as confined to the two first volumes, and about one half of the third. The story of St. Claire hangs heavy on the reader's hands, because he knows the event: and the mind resting on a pleasing security of a happy termination, feels with much pain the peripetia or change of fortune in the fourth volume, a catastrophe not less unpleasant in itself than improper, as implying a pernicious tenet which we formerly reprobated, that the offences of the parents are punished in their offspring. We can see but one reason for this, and the warm effusions of religion, we had almost said bigotry, when the Roman Catholic faith is the subject: this reason must be obvious, and it is, at the same time, reprehensible.

The principal merit of this work, we have observed, consists in the artful contrivance of an intricate series of events, well connected, without improbability, without confusion, and without a redundant perplexity. There is also some pathos, we mean independent of the conclusion which we wholly disapprove;

prove; much humour; and some well-conducted incidents. In the characters we see nothing very new, and nothing outré or unnatural; the different personages, and they are pretty numerous, are well distinguished, without the force of contrast. On the whole, if the author had known where to have stopped, she would have done well: at present she has produced a motley performance, like an insect divided into two parts; and we may carry on the metaphor by adding, that the poison is in the tail. The arrangement of the convent is surely detailed in colours too captivating; and the sin of escaping from a vowed celibacy as too enormous. If there be any sin, it is in opposing the dictates of nature; and in flying to an unnatural seclusion, which neither reason nor religion can defend.

The Vicar of Landdowne; or, Country Quarters. A Tale.
By Maria Regina Dalton. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Johnson.

If, at our author's request, we should be inclined to pass by the good Vicar of Landdowne, and turn, like the Levite of old, to the other side, yet a duty superior to complaisance, a duty arising from our professions and connection with the public, would compel us to pay our respects to him. In reality, we do not see why this lady, for young she has said she is, and single we suspect her to be*, should deviate so far from the usual desire of being noticed, except she feared that our attention would be followed by dislike. But this is a suggestion so unfeminine, that we cannot for a moment admit it. Let us leave then conjecture, and turn to the work.

We see in many passages of this novel proofs of its having been written by an author unhackneyed in the tricks of the profession. The tale is natural, easy, pleasing, and interesting. If it were not for the little inexperience which we hinted at, we should have ranked it very high in the class: at present, if it is not in the first rank, it may be placed at the head of the second. The language is good, the characters, if not quite new, are not those usual personages which we meet with every day; the situations are interesting, and the moral unexceptionable. We have read it with pleasure, and we ought, for Miss Dalton's sake, to say that she deserves praise.

The Bastile; or, the History of Charles Townly, a Man of the World. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Lane.

The style and manner of this work are not unlike those of Roderick Random. The fable is arranged and unfolded without intricacy, and without confusion. The personages are numerous, and more than usually characteristic: events often uncommon and entertaining, though not in the extreme of low humour. When we compare these volumes with the novels of Fielding and Smollett, we cannot arrange them in the same line, yet we think they may safely be put in the first rank of the second class.

* See vol. ii. p. 107.

The Duke of Exeter. An Historical Romance. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Lane.

As an historical romance, this novel is contemptible, since not one trait of history or of the manners of the times is preserved. The story is, however, well wound up, and the catastrophe concealed with some art: we see occasionally traces of a French extraction; but the brat is too insignificant for rival nations to contend for the honour of having produced it.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Short Letter to Colonel Lenox, on his Conduct towards the Duke of York. By an Officer of the Army. 8vo. 1s. Kearsley.

This Letter appears to be the production of an intemperate partizan, who censures colonel Lenox, in the most petulant language, for having been guilty of the unpardonable crime of vindicating, perhaps imprudently, his reputation.

The Bee; or, a Companion to the Shakspeare Gallery: containing a Catalogue-Raïsonné of all the Pictures; with Comments, Illustrations, and Remarks. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

A catalogue-raïsonné of all the pictures; with comments, illustrations, and remarks! As the merit of a production of this kind depends entirely upon the taste of the author, and the fidelity with which it is executed, we shall leave the Bee, at present, in the full enjoyment of its own decisions; and only observe, that the Catalogue contains an account of thirty-four paintings, the subject of which is taken from some of the most picturesque scenes in Shakspeare's plays.

An Attempt to explain some of the Thirty-nine Articles on Scriptural Principles. By a Minister of the Church of England. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

Our author in pursuit of his theological studies, found reason to be dissatisfied with some of the most important articles of religion: on each of these he has offered to the world a short commentary, with a design of interpreting them more consistently, as he thinks, with the scriptures. We are sorry that we cannot in every instance agree in his explanations, yet that the articles require some revision, every careful enquirer will allow; but those to whom the task must devolve will necessarily shrink from one so dangerous.

An Address to young Persons after Confirmation. By Richard Watson, Lord Bishop of Landaff. 12mo. 1s. Evans.

This Address, like the rest of the bishop's works, is clear, instructive, and practical. We can cheerfully agree with him in these opinions, and would strongly recommend the little work before us to those for whom it was designed.

Thoughts on the different Kinds of Food given to young Silk Worms, and the Possibility of their being brought to perfection in the Climate of England. By S. Berzezen. 8vo. 1s. Bew.

Our author is fully of opinion, that silk worms may be bred with advantage in England, and prefers the black mulberry-tree, as it affords the most silky leaves. To the mulberry-leaf powder he makes many objections, but we do not perceive that they arise from experience. Lettuce and other leaves are, he thinks; useless, and he adds, what we know to be true, that improper food weakens the worm and injures the silk, though they do not kill it. This is almost the whole of the work, for a little matter is expanded in many words.

The Traveller's Companion; or, New Itinerary of England and Wales, with part of Scotland; arranged in the manner of Copper-plates; being an accurate and comprehensive View of the Principal Roads in Great Britain, taken from actual Surveys. Illustrated with two Maps. By Thomas Pride and Philip Luckombe. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Lowndes.

The plan of this work is in some measure new; and though it requires a little study to comprehend it, yet when understood, it is very convenient and instructive. Accuracy is the chief object in compilations of this kind; and from examining those parts with which we are best acquainted, we think this work sufficiently correct. It contains much incidental information, which may interest a traveller in a very convenient form.

An Apology for professing the Religion of Nature, in the eighteenth Century of the Christian Era. addressed to the right rev. Dr. Watson, Lord Bishop of Landaff. 12mo. 3s. Ridgway.

We have read over this work with care, and have sometimes suspected that the author intended to serve the cause of religion by appearing to oppose it: but this suspicion was soon checked by perceiving the artifice and the studied misrepresentation in some passages. If the author is in earnest, his work is designed to call forth an answer, or fix the public attention to his cause by the pains and penalties which may impend on his publisher: but if either was his object he is mistaken. The infidelity of the present age is the result of carelessness and inattention, for the modern infidel will not, in general, be at the trouble of studying the principles of his sect. Those who could reply, will see that they shall by that means raise him into an importance which neither his cause nor his arguments deserve; and governments at last perceive that these noxious insects soon perish by neglect. We are so little afraid of this author's power to do harm, even if his work should be universally read, that we can praise the spirit and correctness of the language, while the various quotations show that the author possesses much learning, which we wish had been employed in a better cause.

The

The Genders of the French Substantives, alphabetically arranged according to their Terminations. By B. Arleville. 12mo. 1st 6d. Philipps.

'The best rules given by our grammarians are liable to so many exceptions, that it is a task too hard, and next to impossible, for any body to remember them; which inconvenience I have tried to obviate, by giving a kind of dictionary, containing all the terminations; at each of which, after naming the exceptions, is given a rule for the gender of all other words having the same termination. Therefore, when you want to know the gender of a substantive, see which are the letters that compose the last syllable of the word, beginning always with the last, and so on backwards. If the word is not to be found among those given, then it is of the gender named in the rule immediately following. For example, suppose you want to know the gender of *prudence*, you must look under *E* for the termination *nce*; when you have found it, as you will not see *prudence* among the exceptions: the line following the word *internonce*, which contains the general rule for this termination, tells you that *prudence* is of the feminine gender.'

Our author is very kind to the student, for he has given him a work where it requires two operations (at least most commonly two) for what may be done by any dictionary at once. His general rules at the beginning are very trifling or useless: one or two may be excepted; but these are not worth eighteenpence.

The Art of making coloured Crystals, to imitate precious Stones, translated from the French, of M. Fontanieu. By William Drew, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

M. Fontanieu's memoir is little known in this country, and our artists will probably be obliged to Mr. Drew for his judicious translation. But, since the time when this little tract was first written, many improvements have been made in the process; and, if the chemical artist would speak without dissimulation, some more perfect works might be easily effected. Much, however, may be done by the methods described in the memoir before us.

The colours imparted to glass, in our laboratories, are to be sought for in the various metallic calces. Nature, more frugal, and more expert, produces them in all their beautiful variety by iron alone. To M. Fontanieu's descriptions, Mr. Drew has added the analyses of the natural gems by Bergman and others. He has illustrated the subject too by numerous chemical notes: indeed in this part of his work he is profusely prodigal, generally correct, but sometimes a little too hasty in his conclusions. This little tract is, however, in many respects not less curious than useful. We can give no opinion on the new theory of phlogiston and electrical fluid, mentioned in the preface, till we hear it more fully explained and supported by

the arguments and experiments which the author means undoubtedly to adduce in its favour in his future work. In its present form, it is not very captivating.

Conjectures on some of the Phenomena of the Barometer: to which is added, a Paper on the Inversion of Objects on the Retina. By Robert M'Causland, M.D. 8vo. 1s. Creech, Edinburgh.

The barometer is a very common instrument; and the changes, in the height of the mercury, are explained with so much confidence in every work of natural philosophy, that to doubt may be supposed presumptuous; to disbelieve inexcusable. It is, however, true, that the usual explanations are inadmissible and unphilosophical; at the same time, they are not sufficiently extensive to explain many of the more minute variations. Dr. M'Causland states some of the objections to the different theories with great propriety and strict justice; but the greater number, and the most important ones, he has omitted. In the improving state of natural philosophy we may expect that this deficiency will be attended to. Somewhat has already been done; but much remains. Our author advances a little by suggesting that variations may arise from the alteration in the real quantity of the air, since in phlogistic processes the air is diminished; and, from vegetation, as well as from water exposed to the light of the sun, air is produced. These steps, however, will go but a little way; and it is of more consequence to observe, that they are not connected with those states of the air which are attended with changes of weather. The late experiments on hygrometers, as we have formerly had occasion to point out, have shown that in evaporation there is a very subtle and elastic vapour generated, which greatly influences the manometer, and must undoubtedly influence the barometer in the open air, while the superincumbent atmosphere furnishes the resistance to the spring. We once supposed, and cautiously hinted it, that the decomposition of water may have some effect; and this also is Dr. M'Causland's opinion; but these hopes are now destroyed. If our author pursues this subject, we would recommend to him an enquiry how far the production and diminution of air, as they occur in other processes of nature, are connected with the changes of weather; and how far that subtle medium, the effect of evaporation, has any influence on the barometer. For an account of this latter vapour, we may refer him to Saussure's *Essays on the Hygrometer*, and M. de Luc's *Idées sur la Météorologie*. We ought to add, that this Essay is, in many respects, ingenious, and deserves our commendation.

The paper annexed, on the Inversion of Objects on the Retina, is also ingenious. He shows very clearly, that the situation of the image on the bottom of the eye is not connected with our idea of its real situation, for we refer bodies to their proper place, whatever direction the image may be made to assume

on

on the retina. In vision, he supposes, that objects are always referred to the earth, either by the faculty of seeing, or the connection between the senses of vision and feeling, as founded on experience. We believe, however, the whole to be founded on experience; and the mind judges with a rapidity which, before we are capable of observing, is overlooked by its having become habitual.

The Book of Common Prayer, and Administration of the Sacraments, and other Rites and Ceremonies, as revised and proposed to the Use of the Protestant Episcopal Church, at a Convention of the said Church in the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina. 12mo. 4s. in Boards. Debrett.

The United States have made the first use of their religious liberty in reviewing and altering the book of Common Prayer; and they have done it with great judgment and propriety. At least what Patrick, Burnet, Tillotson, and Tennison, &c. proposed in 1689, may be safely commended at this time; and, in their footsteps, the American reformers have proceeded, without any material change in the fundamental parts, or the important doctrines. If a reform were to take place in England, we own that we should wish to advance a little farther; but though some changes may appear to be useful, we fear that they are not expedient; and we think they should not be rashly undertaken.

A Treatise upon the Herb Tobacco. By a Gentleman of the University of Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stalker.

Tobacco undoubtedly produces many bad effects; and this gentleman of Cambridge, not content with enumerating, has added to them. We suspect his violent sermon on this subject, like some other sermons, will be little attended to by those to whom it is addressed.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE have received the Letter from Maidstone, expressive of great indignation at a passage in our article respecting Dr. Lardner. We think Mr. Wicke might have seen, if he had possessed the smallest portion of candour, that the word 'that,' page 263, line 9, had the force of *whether*; as well as that the whole sentence was hypothetical. We meant not to impeach any part of Dr. Lardner's early conduct, and beg that the whole may be understood as a supposition which might explain the event, though it was not pretended that either of the causes hinted at was the real one. If we were at this moment to consider any part of the sentence as a fact rather than an hypothesis, it would be what relates to 'the severity of religious prejudice;' and if called on, in support of it, we should adduce Mr. Wicke's letter.



A P P E N D I X

TO THE

CRITICAL REVIEW, VOLUME THE SIXTY-SEVENTH.

The Secret History of the Court of Berlin; or, the Character of the present King of Prussia, his Ministers, Mistresses, Generals, Courtiers, Favourites, and the Royal Family of Prussia. In a Series of Letters, translated from the French. In Two Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Bladon.

THOUGH the count de Mirabeau has disclaimed this work, there are few who doubt of its being his offspring. The count was the author of two Memorials inserted in it; of the History of the Prussian Monarchy, quoted with approbation in the Letters: he resided at Berlin at the period when these Letters were written, in the character which he has himself described; and the sentiments in the Correspondence, except in one instance, are not different from those which he has expressed in the Memorials. The count, for we may use his name after what we have said, without deciding on the real author, was sent by the court of France, in a private character, to examine without suspicion the conduct of the king and of the statesmen who composed the new court. He was one of those equivocal persons whom the court of France occasionally sends out as a guardian, perhaps a spy, on its ambassador, whom she can support, sacrifice, or disown as she pleases; a crooked policy, which occasionally embarrasses, and is almost always injurious. The count feels all the inconveniencies of his situation: he hints at difficulties; meanly begs credentials, though of the most secret nature; wishes for a more open and responsible character; in short, he does every thing but what an open-hearted honest man would have done—boldly renounce a situation inconsistent with the dignity of a man; a character scarcely rising above contempt.

The translator we are not acquainted with; but he has performed his task with singular ability. His version is free, and unpolluted, so far as we can perceive, by a single idiomatical expression: he has preserved the secret force of many passages, and, with some success, even kept the effect of those which depend on a point or

the sound of the words. We met with but one phrase that we think could have been translated better; and this we did not mark, because it depended rather on taste and on fancy than on the comparative force of the two passages. In short, it is executed so well that we have looked farther than usual for the author and for his motive. We suspect that the latter is a political one; and, when we examine the complexion of his work with that of the political views of a certain party, and the present tendency of ministerial and national connections, we cannot help thinking, but perhaps we consider too minutely, that the design was not alone that of adding the intrigues of a foreign cabinet to the permanent stock of English literature.

It is with this view, and to prevent our readers from being misled by our subsequent extracts, that we would point out the difficulties which prevent our relying too implicitly on the picture before us. The count was sent by France, with all the prejudices or predilections of a Frenchman, to explore the intricate mazes of the new reign. Frederick, notwithstanding the seven years war, was a Frenchman: his English attachments were the effects of political necessity; and his attachments to Holland those of family-connection only. His successor, the victim of 'avuncular despotism,' was little known: all Europe looked with eagerness at his first movements; and the Dutch disturbances, in which he was obliged to take an early and active part, were considered as the criterion by which it was to judge of his future conduct. The king, from the usual conduct of successors, looked on the opposite side from that which attracted Frederick; and the partizan of France was of course disgusted with his conduct and his administration. The count affected to believe and to persuade his employers that Frederick-William would never espouse the cause of the stadtholder. He was ingenious in deceiving himself, in spite of every contradictory appearance. He spoke only with those of the French party, and their suggestions counterbalanced the strongest appearances on the other side: yet such was the phlegm, the supineness, the indecision of the king, that our author's opinion sometimes appeared the most probable one; and there were many periods where an accommodation between the stadtholder and the patriots seemed to be the best prospect that the circumstances admitted. The Dutch envoy appears to have decidedly adopted this opinion, unless, with a duplicity scarcely to be suspected, he wished to remove the count to Nimeguen, where he could do little injury. The count's real influence however does not permit us to adopt the suspicion.

The preface of the translator deserves considerable praise: it is clear, pointed, and judicious. As we shall have occasion to transcribe

transcribe much, we wish to avoid any quotation from this part; but the following character of the author stands forward in the canvas, and may be of service to the reader: it is too tempting to resist, and, except that it is a little too favourable, is well worth preserving.

‘ If count Mirabeau published his book from motive; either of petty vanity, petty revenge, or to serve any other equally petty purpose, that he should then be ashamed would but be natural. But, if he had the nobler intention of teaching mankind how to judge, and consequently how to beware, of courts, and the poor subtleties of men who wish to govern the world by cunning instead of justice (I say of justice, for justice is the sum and substance of all the virtues, and whatever is not justice is either vice or folly) if he wished to teach the comprehensive mind the true art of governing, by giving examples of the false; if he were desirous to expand the wings of wisdom, and aid in diffusing happiness over the earth, his letter and his blushes, if blush he does, are his disgrace. True it is that the work itself proves him to be an unequal man; frequently capable of despising what is despicable, yet sometimes alike capable of practising what he despises; occasionally with views so independent, dignified, and comprehensive, as to enforce admiration and applause; at others displaying vanity, forming schemes, and stooping to arts, that excite pity and disgust. But men even of great talents are generally incongruous, paradoxical: few only are uniform in superior wisdom, and count Mirabeau is not yet one of those few.’

These Letters are supposed by the translator to have been addressed to M. de Calonne. They include the count's observations during his residence at Berlin, which continued from the beginning of July 1785, to about the middle of January 1787. The first person whom the count introduces is the duke of Brunswick, field-marshal in the Prussian army, the commander in chief in the active assistance which Frederick-William sent to Holland. Frederick was not dead when the count arrived; and, as the curtain was not drawn up, he was not in a hurry to appear on the stage. The duke of Brunswick appears, from the portrait which the count has drawn, to be slow, cautious, and moderate. When M. de Vergennes retired, he seemed apprehensive that M. de Bre** (probably Breteuil), the avowed friend of Austria, might succeed, and that the force of France would by this means be decidedly in favour of the schemes of the romantic and enterprising Joseph, whose connexion however with France, it is said, will terminate with the life of prince Kaunitz. The duke was fearful of hazarding his character in any petty cabal or political intrigue; but, as may be suspected, was not averse to becoming the first minister of Prussia, and the real agent in managing the machine of government. The whole picture is in

every respect an advantageous one : the likeness probably correct. When engaged in military or any other avocations, he is minutely attentive, and anxiously vigilant : master of himself, watchful of those with whom he converses or is connected, his great mind acquires information from circumstances not observable to common eyes, and he reveals or hides as much as is consistent with his views. At this period we can, we think, perceive, that the count was his dupe. He was evidently anxious lest the duke de B. should acquire the ascendancy in the French cabinet, and led this forward negotiator to imagine that the Germanic confederation would never have existed, if it had been decidedly clear that France would not co-operate with Austria. When it was seen from the changes in the French administration that the German partizans were no longer powerful, he joined with the English in the effectual support of the rights of the stadtholder, and led the Prussian army to Amsterdam. If the duke was sincere in any thing, it seems to have been suggesting the alliance between England, France, and Prussia ; and to render it a defensive alliance only. If Holland and the Germanic confederacy are added, it must keep the world in awe ; and, while it continues, war will be no more : it requires no deep policy, however, to add, that the scheme must be for the present imaginary.

‘ The duke must, in our author’s opinion, be the prime minister, for he is, of all men, him who best can conduct little vanity : he will satisfy himself with appearing the servant of servants ; the most polite, the most humble, and indubitably the most adroit of courtiers ; while, at the same time, his iron hand will fetter all paltry views, all trifling intrigues, all inferior factions.’

The late king is spoken of in terms of the highest admiration ; and it is pretended that the conduct of his successor adds lustre to it from the contrast. The last moments of his life were distinguished by his eagerness after high dishes, by his care of his pine-apples, and neglect of foreign affairs. His mind continued firm and clear, his answers to different dispatches were dictated in his usual, precise, animated language ; and the weakness of his body had no influence on his intellectual powers. He was still the great Frederick. As we have formerly remarked, his disease had many variations : nature, as the count forcibly expresses himself, exerted herself with unusual energy four different times, to preserve her rare composition, the most stupendous of her works.

‘ Two thirds of Berlin at present are violently declaiming, in order to prove that Frederick II. was a man of common, and almost of mean capacity. Ah ! could his large eyes, which
obedient

obedient to his wishes seduced or terrified the human heart, could they but for a moment open, where would these idiot parasites find courage sufficient to expire with shame ?

The first movements of the new king seem to have been conducted with great judgment. Prince Henry, the brother of Frederick, eagerly and prematurely interfered ; but he was checked with firmness. He is described as volatile, impetuous, and unsteady in the extreme ; yet he was trusted by Frederick with the command of armies, and his conduct in the war respecting the Bavarian succession was marked, if historians are not, as they sometimes are, too partial to the brother of a king, with the features of firmness and good conduct. Prince Henry is wholly in the French interest, and, in the following description, it is a partizan of France who speaks.

‘ I never could prevail on the prince to comply ; sometimes inflated, sometimes agitated, he neither could command his countenance nor his first emotions. He is deceitful, yet knows not how to dissemble ; endowed with ideas, wit, and even a portion of understanding, but has not a single opinion of his own.—Petty means, petty councils, petty passions, petty prospects ; all is diminutive in the soul of that man. While he makes gigantic pretensions, he has a mind without method ; is as haughty as an upstart, and as vain as a man who had no claim to respect ; he can neither lead nor be led. He is one of the too frequent examples that insignificance of character may stifle the greatest qualities.’

The manner of the king appears from this account to be slow and ungracious : his voice heavy and monotonous. He is either superior to, or careless of etiquette, inattentive to business, inconsistent in his plans, and unsteady in their execution. Three things are minutely attended to ; to dismiss the French financiers, to destroy monopolies, and to countenance German, or occasionally English, fashions, literature, &c. Yet we ought to add, from the same work, that he is an œconomist, except in his pleasures, strictly observant of his word, a truly grateful and honest man. Though the count allows so much with reluctance ; when the fit is on him, he can be very violent.

‘ It appears extremely probable that habit will be the conqueror ; and that Frederick William will never be more than what his penetrating uncle had foreboded. No terms are too hyperbolical to express the excessive negligence of his domestic affairs, their disorder, and his waste of time. The valets dread his violence ; but they are the first to turn his incapacity to derision. Not a paper in its place ; not a word written at the bottom of any of the memorials ; not a letter personally opened ; no human power could induce him to read forty lines together. It is at once the tumult of vehemence and the torpor

of inanity. His natural son, the count of Brandenburg, is the only one who can rouse him from his lethargy; he loves the boy to adoration. His countenance brightens the moment he appears, and he amuses himself, every morning, a considerable time with this child, and this, even of his pleasures, is the only one in which he is regular; for the remaining hours are wasted in absolutely inexplicable confusion.'—

— 'The master?—What is he?—I persist in believing it would be rash, at present, to pronounce; though one might be strongly tempted to reply King Log. No understanding, no fortitude, no consistency, no industry; in his pleasures the Hog of Epicurus, and the hero only of pride; which perhaps we should rather denominate confined and vulgar vanity—Such hitherto have the symptoms been.—And under what circumstances, in what an age, and at what a post? I am obliged to summon all my reason to divine, and to forget it all again to hope. The thing which is really to be feared is lest the universal contempt he must soon incur should irritate him, and deprive him of that species of benevolence of which he shews signs. That weakness is very formidable which unites an ardent thirst after pleasures, destitute of choice or delicacy, with the desire of keeping them secret, in a situation where nothing can be kept secret.'—

— 'You may take it for granted that there are three principal shades in the character of the king; deceit, which he believes to be art; irascible vanity, whenever the least remonstrance is made to him; and the accumulation of money, which is not so much avarice in him as the passion of possessing. The first of these vices has rendered him suspicious; for he who deceives by system continually imagines he is deceived. The second induces him to prefer people of middling, or inferior abilities; and the latter contributes to make him lead an obscure and solitary life, by which the two former are strengthened. Violent in private; impenetrable in public; little animated by the love of fame in reality, and making this love to consist chiefly in leading the world to suppose he is not governed; rarely troubling himself with foreign politics; a soldier from necessity, and not from inclination; disposed to favour the mystics, not from conviction, but because he believes he shall, by their aid, examine the consciences, and penetrate the hearts of men.'—

— 'I have not yet depicted the monarch as a warrior; the trade gives him the spleen, its minutiae fatigue him, and he is weary of the company of generals. He goes to Potsdam, comes on the parade, gives the word, dines, and departs. He went on Wednesday to the house of exercise at Berlin, uttered a phrase or two, bade the troops march, and vanished. And this is the house in which Frederick II. loaded with fame and years, regularly passed two hours daily, in the depth of winter, in disciplining, grumbling, cursing, prailing, in a word in keeping the tormented troops in perpetual action, who still were transported

to see the *old one*, for that was the epithet they gave him, at their head.'

But perhaps we have had enough of this accumulated invective: it is time to return to other personages, whom we occasionally hear of in our political warfare. The queen is said to be a turbulent versatile, but far from a feeble character; and Hertzberg 'rather crafty than able, deceitful than cunning, violent than determined, vain than ambitious; old and infirm, and not promising any long duration of life.' The author might have added, that he is of the English party, and this reveals instead of hiding sins. The emperor; but we need not transcribe what all Europe is sufficiently acquainted with: his military talents are said to be 'null,' that he is incapable of commanding a regiment in the common manœuvres of a review. The duke of York fares badly; but he is an Englishman.—
Le voici.

'The duke of York arrived here this evening, and had he been the emperor he could not have been treated with more respect, especially by the duchess and the courtiers. She indeed is wholly English, as well in her inclinations and her principles as in her manners; in so much that her almost cynical independence, opposed to the etiquette of the courts of German princes, forms the most singular contrast I know. I do not however believe that there is any question concerning the marriage of the princess Caroline, who is a most amiable, lively, playful, witty, and handsome lady; the duke of York, a puissant hunter, a potent drinker, an indefatigable laughter, destitute of breeding and politeness, and who possesses, at least in appearance, much of the duke de Laufen, as well in mind as in person, is inspired with a kind of passion for a woman married to a jealous husband, who torments him, and will not suffer him to fix his quarters. I know not whether he will go to Berlin. The versions relative to him are various. Some affirm that, after having been an unbridled libertine, he feels a returning desire of doing his duty. For my own part I find in him all the stiffness of a German prince, with a double dose of English insolence, but wanting the free cordiality of that nation.'

Prince Eugene of Wirtemberg is said to be a ruined libertine; but singular, ardent, and active to deliver himself like an oracle, and enslave his hearers by his powerful and ecstatic elocution. He is one of the sect of the mystics, to which the king is much devoted. His eyes are sometimes haggard, always inflamed, and his countenance in excessive emotion; once a pupil of Mesmer, he seems to preserve the most brilliant genius, accompanied by a disturbed imagination.

Of count Bruhl our author says little; and is willing to insi-

nuate away what is generally allowed, his amiable and candid manners. Of his pupil, the prince-royal of Prussia, much is said in praise: 'every thing in him betrays greatness, but ungraciousness of character;' he is awkward, but possesses a speaking countenance: he is unpolished, but sincere.

'He asks the wherefore of every thing, nor will he ever be satisfied with a reply that is not reasonable. He is severe and tenacious, even to ferocity; and yet is not incapable of affection and sensibility. He already knows how to esteem and condemn. His disdain of his father approaches hatred, which he is not very careful to conceal. His veneration of the late king partakes of idolatry, and this he proclaims. Perhaps the youth is destined to great actions; and, should he become the engine of some memorable revolution, men who can see to a distance will not be surprised.'

We have extended our article very far; in fact it was curious, entertaining, and to us highly interesting, to approach and take a nearer view of the king and the man, with whom our rulers have so closely connected us. As we have already given the antidote to much of this poison; as the event has, in a few instances, contradicted our author's prophecies, we shall not add to our article by any arguments of the same kind. Let each party stand on its own ground, and let our readers judge between both. As the rambling unconnected style of this correspondence may fatigue some readers, we had selected a few miscellaneous facts, we think, of importance; but we are unable to find room for them. We cannot help mentioning, however, one circumstance, which is, we think, curious and important. When Hyder Ally advanced beyond the Orissa, and checked the commerce of the Hindoos with the English, the northern inhabitants of Bengal are said to have carried their iron to the frontiers of Siberia, there to find a market. This fact occasioned the Russians, in 1783, to send a fleet to Astrachan to seize on Astrabat, to form an establishment on the northern coast of the Caspian, and thence to penetrate to the interior parts of India. The enterprize for a time failed; but our author suspects that it is still kept in view. The story has undoubtedly all the inaccuracy of common rumour; but if we substitute Tartary for Siberia, Esterabat, on the south of the Caspian, for Astrabat on the north, it is by no means improbable. It is a gigantic and not a very unreasonable project; but there are impediments which the court is by no means aware of: at all events, this enterprising power should be carefully watched.

The Life of Frederick the Second, King of Prussia. To which are added, Observations, Authentic Documents, and a Variety of Anecdotes. Translated from the French. In Two Volumes. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Debrett.

AS we have so frequently attended to Frederick; as he has often passed in review before us, and we have had occasion to point out his manœuvres, his evolutions, and his system of war and of finance; we need not enlarge on these volumes. The author is professor Laveaux, once engaged in teaching French to the Prussian academicians; or in less ludicrous terms, author of some criticisms on the language of the memoirs of the Berlin Society. We have no hesitation in saying that this is by far the best life of Frederick in English, or indeed that we have seen. The author, though a Frenchman, is not slavishly attached to the customs or the language of France; a little, probably unavoidable, partiality occasionally appears, but it seldom warps his judgment or disguises his narrative. The translator, from one or two coincidences, we suspected to be the translator of the Secret History of the Court of Berlin; but on enquiry we are informed, that he is his equal only in accuracy and elegance.

The Life of Frederick is divided into different periods. In the first, from 1712 to 1740, a period of twenty-eight years, contains the life of the king from his birth to his accession to the throne. The second is continued from the accession of Frederick to the peace of Breslaw: the third from that era, 1742, to the peace of Dresden 1745: and the fourth from the peace of Dresden to the commencement of the seven years war in 1756. The fifth period contains a narrative of that important war which desolated Germany, and displayed the abilities and the fortitude of the king in the strongest light. In the sixth period, with which the second volume commences, we find the history of the administration of Frederick during the peace. The seventh contains the less splendid, but more important negotiations respecting the partition of Poland; the short war of the Bavarian succession, with an account of the Germanic confederation. The last period comprehends the private and literary life of Frederick, his illness, and death; with reflections on the influence which he had on the age in which he lived.

This comprehensive arrangement must necessarily contain every important circumstance relating to Frederick; but besides the text, numerous notes, illustrations, and anecdotes, sufficient of themselves to form no inconsiderable or unpleasing work, are subjoined. It seems that the author is sometimes diffident of his information, or afraid of speaking what he thinks, or what he is acquainted

acquainted with. At least, the following observations, which we select for the good sense and judgment which are displayed in them, seem to us as if they concealed a little doubt or difficulty.

‘ In the opinion of the writer of the ensuing pages, the moment for engaging in the attempt to become the historian of the life of Frederick the Second, was still considerably distant. Freely to canvas events of which the dates are recent, at once bespeaks a want of policy, and the ignorance of danger. Better is it to wait until the ravages of time shall have annihilated the pride which is perpetually too vulnerable, and the captious vanity which it is so difficult to avoid offending. And where, likewise, is the possibility of describing the whole scenery, whilst a part of it continues hidden by an impenetrable curtain? Nor is this all: it appears indispensably requisite to prolong the completion of so arduous a task, until the scyons which Frederick the Second has planted in the particular constitution of his own states shall have produced their fruits; and until the links which he has added to the chain which forms the more extended constitution of Europe shall have been either consolidated or broken. Then only can causes be ascertained by their effects; and then only must the historian hope justly to appreciate the character of the hero whom he chuses for the subject of his investigation. It is at this period alone that he can indulge the idea of discovering (what the true portraiture of even the most distinguished characters will present) abilities and virtues which it is as fair to covet as it is laudable to imitate their advantageous activity; and errors and vices which howsoever they may have dazzled, are always to be condemned, detested, and avoided.’

Of these periods, the first is we think most defective and erroneous, the sixth most truly instructive, and the last the most entertaining. The defects of the first consist in M. Laveaux’s not having looked with a discerning eye on the conduct of Frederick-William I. not having discriminated the force of the Prussian monarchy in its embryo, and repeating the tale of the interference of Seckendorf, which has been already contradicted. The great merit of the sixth consists in a clear, circumstantial, and instructive detail of the peace-administration of Frederick, his system of finance, of military tactics and government, the restoration of what the destructive fury of war had desolated, and the introduction of a spirit of industry, commerce, and manufactures: the last is in general sufficiently known; but M. Laveaux has put many of the circumstances in a new light, added some entertaining details, and enlivened the whole with a spirited and fascinating style. We have said that we shall not again step over the scenes which we have already contemplated;

but

but we shall add a little sketch of Frederick, gleaned from the work before us, as a supplementary detail to what we have formerly had occasion to observe.

Frederick, who would reign alone, and dispatch the business of a kingdom in an hour and a half of each day, was on this account subject to misinformation: his projects were secretly counteracted, and in some points his judgement was misled. This arose in part too from a little jealousy of being advised and governed, which led him to employ men who could condescend to trudge contentedly in the trammels of another. His employment of French financiers was a weakness arising from his predilection for France; and his continuing them in office, an obstinacy whose source may be traced to vanity, and an unwillingness to own an error. His fondness for France led him to seek for their literary men, and to attach them to himself. He had Voltaire, Maupertuis, D'Argens, and some others of real merit; but their disputes soon cooled his ardour, for wits of the first rank; and their retorts sometimes gave the king pain, which he was weak enough to feel and to revenge. He would have an academy in Germany without Germans; and consequently when he could not procure men of real merit, or when he associated those which he possessed with philosophers in name only, he soon found disgusts, discontents, murmurs, and resignations: at last, his academy may be comparatively said to have been composed of philosophers without science, of philologists without learning, and of wits without genius. They were in the latter part of his reign the objects of his ridicule, and he is said often to have declared, that if he were to reign again, he would no longer look for assistance in literary pursuits but in Germany or England. He was certainly unacquainted with the learned languages, yet he talks of the ancients and of their writings with zeal and fervour; but he seems to have known them only through the medium of a translation, and often to have arrogated the merit, which he did not possess, of reading them in the original languages.

We shall select a short specimen from our author's account of the peace-administration of Frederick, and another from the literary character of the monarch; but, in estimating his merits, we could have wished that the translator had rendered the poetry uniformly. We know that it is not easy to translate so as to give a specimen of a poet's manner, and to preserve corresponding defects: yet it has been sometimes done, and the translator has given such specimens of his abilities, that we believe him to be equal to very difficult attempts.

‘ The foreign manufactures established by Frederick in his states, enable his subjects to dispense with almost all sorts of foreign merchandize, the entry of which is prohibited. The
linens

linens, the woollen stuffs, the cloths, and other articles fabricated in the provinces of the king of Prussia, are transported into all the German states, to Switzerland, Italy, France, Poland, and even to Russia and China. The Prussians export annually, linens to the amount of six millions of crowns, and cloths and woollen stuffs to the amount of four millions. The iron works and hardware of the county of La Mark produce a return of about one million into the country. The woods of Brandenburg and Pomerania, the corn, the flax, and woods of Prussia, form also very considerable articles of commerce; a commerce which must recover from the checks which it has received, if not experience a considerable increase, as Frederick-William has purged his dominions of those rapacious foreigners who imposed but too often on Frederick II.

‘ This numerous body of manufacturers much augmented the population of the Prussian states under the reign of Frederick. In 1787, not less than 123,000 families were reckoned, who are employed in the manufacture of silks, woollens, linens, cottons, leather, and other raw materials. The merchandise which they worked up, amounted at that period, to 16 millions of crowns, one half of which was for foreign consumption. If we reckon four persons to each family, it may be asserted that the Prussian manufactures give subsistence to half a million of workmen, which number forms about the twelfth part of the population.

‘ Frederick protected and favoured the manufacturers by every possible means, and especially by making them large advances of money, by holding out premiums to encourage them, by establishing magazines of wool and other raw materials in several of the small towns, by exempting the manufacturing towns from enrolments and military service.

‘ Frederick-William, his father, had established some manufactories of cloths, woollen stuffs, linens, and arms; Frederick II. added to them others of cotton, silk, porcelain, sugar, leather, &c. The manufactory of porcelain at Berlin employs 500 workmen, and, notwithstanding the rivalry of that of Saxony, sells a great quantity in foreign countries. The silk manufactures were very inconsiderable in the reign of Frederick-William I. in the last years of that of Frederick II. they occupied upwards of 5000 workmen; in the marche of Brandenburg alone, the working of the mines, which owes a part of its actual existence to the indefatigable pains and enlightened knowledge of Mr. de Heinitz, a minister of state, then occasioned a national produce of half a million. —

— ‘ It seems difficult, no doubt, to pass a judgment on the works of Frederick. Voltaire has pretended that he corrected them; and others, who still more than Voltaire, should have been silent on the subject, have boasted since his death of having furnished him with the materials for his history: take from him materials and style, what will there remain? Let us speak out: either materials collected by the student of an university, or the
corrections

corrections of an able man do not suffice in the formation of a good work. To dry, meagre, and confused extracts, a consistence, colouring, and order, must be given: a plan must be traced out, and its parts proportioned and distributed; they must be thrown into agreeable forms, connected together, and rendered proper to form a whole. This was the work of Frederick. As for the style, what is bad cannot be corrected. A good work must be the produce of a single cast, which genius alone can operate: in coming out of the mould, the workman may find some parts to polish, some trifling deficiencies to correct; but it is to the artist we are indebted for the master-piece. If a statue be destitute of graces, if there be no proportion in the dimensions, where is the Phidias who shall correct it to the point of excellency? He must break it, and make another. On the other hand, should there exist only a few blemishes in the accessory parts, is he who corrects them entitled to claim the glory of the work? The *Memoirs of Brandenburg* will always hold a distinguished rank among our best historical productions: we love to see a king throwing aside his rank to assume the quality of an historian, and speaking of his house and of his ancestors with a nobleness, a modesty, a wisdom, which constantly discover the philosopher whilst they conceal the man. The *Art of War* is a poem wherein we meet with (I will not say verses, but) whole passages which Voltaire would not have disavowed, and which, with all his corrections, he never could have brought to their present state of perfection, had they been composed by a common genius. These two productions, and his *Anti-Machiavel* would have sufficed to immortalize a Frenchman, and they are the work of a German and a king! The eulogues he composed in memory of some of his deceased friends, do honour to his heart, and whatever his detractors may assert, they never can prevent us from esteeming them as so many acts of public homage rendered by a king to gratitude and friendship; and surely such circumstances are considerable proofs of merit. Some of his familiar epistles would not disgrace the works of La Fare and Chaulieu: and he has written letters to the countess de Camas, to D'Alembert, and several others, which breathe as much nature, facility, and grace, as occur in many of the letters of Madame Deshouliers, not to mention those insipid and wearisome details which so frequently disgust us in the latter. And where is the Frenchman who has written like him upon the military art? Pleasantry is the only species of writing wherein Frederick has not always succeeded.

Much of this is excellent; but the author's partiality for his country at last betrays him, and we can no longer agree with him when he tells us, in a subsequent page, that the increasing merit of the German is owing to the introduction of French literature. '*Sed ubi plura nitent, &c.*' Our author has entertained and instructed us: to look for little faults would be ungenerous; to deny his merits, ungrateful.

A Vindication of the Authenticity of the Parian Chronicle, in answer to a Dissertation on that Subject. By the rev. John Hewlett. 8vo. 4s. 6d. in Boards. Edwards.

IN our account of the volume to which the production now before us is intended as an answer, we endeavoured to give a clear and faithful detail of the arguments advanced by the author against the authenticity of the Parian Chronicle; affirming at the same time, that we should recite with equal impartiality those which might afterwards be urged in favour of that celebrated, though disputed, monument of Grecian history*.

The author of the Dissertation on the Parian Chronicle founded his objections to its authenticity on a variety of considerations, which are examined by his antagonist in the order of their former arrangement. The first consideration was, that 'The characters have no certain or unequivocal marks of antiquity.' In answer to this remark, the champion for the Chronicle suggests the following observations:

'First, it is written, like other ancient inscriptions, in capitals, without any distances between the words, and without points or accents. Secondly, the ancient form of the PI is observed, and the prostrate ETA is used for the ZETA. Thirdly, there are some smaller capitals, particularly the OMICRON, OMEGA, and THETA, intermixed with the larger. And Fourthly, the Parian Chronicle possesses that plainness and simplicity which are among the most genuine marks of antiquity. We discover in it nothing of that confusion of character, or fantastic ornament, which distinguishes inscriptions of a later date. It bears a general resemblance therefore, in this respect, to the most authentic monuments, whose dates are nearly equal, without being a slavish imitation of any one in particular.'

The difference of the characters of the Parian Chronicle from those of the Sigeian, Nemean, or Delian inscriptions, and likewise from the Marmor Sandvicense, the letters on the Farnesian pillars, and those of the Alexandrian manuscript, as observed by the author of the Dissertation, is construed by Mr. Hewlett, instead of an impeachment, into a strong presumptive proof of its genuine antiquity. For he thinks, that had the Parian Chronicle exactly resembled either [any] of those inscriptions in character, the learned author of the Dissertation might have urged the resemblance against its authenticity.

Consideration II. 'It is scarcely probable, that such an expensive and cumbersome work as the chronological marble would have been executed by a private citizen, a philosopher,

* Crit. Rev. vol. lxx. p. 409.

or an historian, at Paros, either for his own amusement, or for the benefit of his fellow citizens.' In answer to this objection, it is observed by the author of the Vindication, that the Parian Chronicle, when Selden first inspected it, contained ninety-three lines, reckoning the imperfect ones, and might originally, perhaps, have contained an hundred. Upon an average, the lines consist of about sixteen words, or one hundred and thirty letters, and the whole might be comprised in six octavo pages, for the marble measured but little more than a yard square, and within this space is comprised the chronology of 1318 years, in characters three tenths of an inch high. Surely, therefore, says the author of the Vindication, the Parian Chronicle is the shortest compendium of chronology that ever was formed. The stone itself, he likewise observes, could have cost but little, in an island famous for its quarries of marble, and the characters are engraved in the commonest manner.

Consideration III. 'This Chronicle does not appear to have been engraved by public authority, by the directions of the magistrates, or the people of Paros.' With regard to this objection, the author of the Vindication thinks it sufficient to remark, that, whether the Parian Chronicle were engraved by public authority or not, it is of little or no consequence to enquire.

Consideration IV. 'The Greek and Roman writers, for a long time after the date of this work, complain, that they had no chronological account of ancient Greece.'

Consideration V. 'This Chronicle is not once mentioned by any writer of antiquity.' Against these objections the author of the Vindication observes, that it is utterly impossible for a writer of the eighteenth century to determine what systems of chronology the ancients possessed, unless he could know what the history of Ephorus contained; unless he could examine the *Chronica* of Apollodorus, and above others, the *Acta Chronica* and other writings of Timæus Siculus. These, he thinks, and a great number of authors, whose names, perhaps, have never reached us, are necessary to inform us of the state of chronology in Greece.

The author of the Vindication, in endeavouring to account for the silence of the ancients respecting the Parian Chronicle, makes the following observations.

'When we consider that time, in a few centuries, committed such havoc in literature, the reader's wonder, perhaps, will be somewhat abated, that the Marmor Chironicon, concealed in the little island of Paros, has passed unnoticed.—But let us consider

consider what number of writers have escaped the general ruin, and reached the present time. Taking into the number poets, historians, philosophers, physicians, mathematicians, critics, scholiasts, and commentators, they do not amount to 400 genuine authors of antiquity. Let it be remembered also, that of these writers, not above one tenth part of their works, on an average, are preserved. We must consider further, that many of them flourished before the date of the Parian Chronicle, and most of the rest wrote on subjects that could have little or no relation to a chronological table. Under these restrictions and allowances, what authors were likely to mention or quote the Parian Chronicle? There were but few contemporaries. Science had not yet dawned on Rome; her aspiring sons were contending for the palm of empire with their illustrious rivals the Carthaginians; and the shock of two such mighty powers must have been felt by the surrounding states. Greece, it is true, was still the seat of the Muses; but she had not yet recovered from the violence and tyranny of Alexander's successors.

‘Of that age, therefore, the only remnants of literature that deserve notice, are a few epigrams and hymns of Callimachus, and the Argonautica of Apollonius Rhodius. Nicander, indeed, flourished about 130 years after; but surely no notice of the Parian Chronicle was to be expected in his Theriaca and Alexipharmaca.

‘The next author, in point of time, was Apollodorus; though he flourished about 150 years after the Parian Chronicle, yet he is the most likely to have mentioned it, if there had been a sufficient motive for any author of antiquity to mention it: but unluckily his elaborate *Συλλαξίς Χρονική* is lost, and nothing but his *Βιβλιοθήκη* remains.

‘Let us now consider what probability there is that Polybius should mention or quote the chronologer of Paros. The object of Polybius was to write the history of the Romans, from the commencement of the first Punic war, which broke out the very year in which the Parian Chronicle was engraved. His work originally consisted of forty books: of these only five remain, with some fragments of the twelve following. The author is admired for his political wisdom, and his skill in military affairs; but a compendium of Greek chronology, that had no relation to the Roman history, and contained not a single event that happened within the limits of his history, was surely foreign to his subject, and therefore unnoticed for that reason only, if there were no other.’

Consideration VI. ‘Some of the facts seem to have been taken from authors of a later date.’ The author of the Vindication thinks that this objection, if ever so well founded, can signify nothing, till the Parian Chronicle has been proved to be spurious.

Con-

Consideration VII. 'Parachronisms appear in some of the epochas, which we can scarcely suppose a Greek chronologer, in the CXXIXth Olympiad, would be liable to commit.' In answer to this objection, the author of the *Vindication* puts the question, that when there are irreconcilable contradictions between authors of the highest antiquity and those of later date, and when Plutarch asserts, that 'thousands still continue to endeavour to correct the chronological canons, without being able to bring them to any consistency;' is it probable, is it possible, that the author of the *Parian Chronicle* should invariably agree, in all his dates, with some one or other of the few authors whose imperfect works are still left? On the supposition of his work being genuine, it is scarcely possible; but had it been spurious, we might have expected that coincidence of opinion which our author seems to suspect.'

Consideration VIII. 'The history of the discovery of the marbles is obscure and unsatisfactory.'

The arguments urged by the *Vindicator* against this objection, are comprised in the following remarks.

'All who say the *Chronicle* was dug up in the island of Paros, speak clearly and expressly. Those who assert that it was found elsewhere, are, for the most part, vague, inconsistent, and obscure. Others who have not absolutely declared that it came from Paros, meant to do it perhaps, but thinking it of no consequence, have blended their narrative with other facts, expressed themselves ambiguously, or said nothing.'

Consideration IXth and last. 'The literary world has been frequently imposed upon by spurious books and inscriptions; and therefore we should be extremely cautious with regard to what we receive under the venerable name of antiquity.' The author of the *Vindication* thinks, 'that the doubts and observations on this subject do not amount to the shadow of a proof, and therefore that it is unnecessary to say any thing in answer to them.'

We have thus laid before our readers a concise account of the arguments urged by the present writer; who, though he has treated the subject with some ingenuity, is far from being either just or candid to the learned author of the *Dissertation*. We shall content ourselves with mentioning a few instances.

He says, that the *Dissertator* has omitted a much more certain and less equivocal mark of the antiquity of the *Parian Chronicle*, than any thing which he has noticed; viz. 'the very ancient and peculiar form of numeration, which the author has used in expressing the dates of his events by letters.' Surely the peculiar form of numeration above mentioned can-

not be admitted as an *unequivocal* mark of antiquity: it might, with as much appearance of justice, be urged as a proof of its forgery.

Mr. Hewlett appears to be surprised at the author of the Dissertation's affirming, that the sixteenth century produced a multitude of grammarians, critics, commentators, and writers of every denomination, deeply versed in Grecian literature, and amply qualified for the compilation of such a system of chronology, as that of the Arundelian marbles. Indeed so much is this a fact, that we might easily fill a whole page of our Review with the names only of such men.

He affirms that the best and most accurate chronological canons were compiled some time before the Parian Chronicle; and 'I repeat, says he, that no one can wonder, with any propriety, from what materials the author of the Parian Chronicle formed his small abridgment, when the elaborate work of Timæus had been published some years before, and received as the highest authority.' But can Mr. Hewlett prove the truth of this remark? Or does he know what the work of Timæus contained?

Among the *mistakes* which have occurred to us in perusing the Vindication, are the following: the Dissertator quotes Herodotus, when speaking of Miltiades; but Mr. Hewlett makes him quote, and, consequently misrepresent Cornelius Nepos. The Vindicator likewise mistakes an Arabian heretic, who lived a thousand years ago, and gave name to a sect called the Valerians, for the celebrated Valerius, the French critic, who published *Excerpta Polybii*, &c. and died in the last century.

Where Mr. Hewlett attempts to correct the Dissertator's translations, we think he is uniformly unsuccessful; and in a note on the word *distracta*, he inadvertently refutes himself. 'It signifies, I think, says he, that the marbles were taken away by force, and perhaps deranged; that is, *pieces* of the Parian Chronicle mixed with fragments of other marbles, &c.' If the Parian Chronicle was in *pieces*, it was certainly broken.

In these few observations, we have confined ourselves to such parts of the Vindicator's arguments as are more immediately connected with literature; but many others are far from being decisive of the subject in dispute. Misrepresentations occur in almost every page. His remarks are frequently inconsequential, not less frequently ill founded; and we wish that he had not, in the zeal of Vindication, given way to the acrimony which appears too often in the work.

Letter

Letters from Barbary, France, Spain, Portugal, &c. By an English Officer. In Two Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

IT is common for Letters from foreign countries, especially such as are not generally well known, to awaken curiosity to the expectation of something new and interesting in the perusal. Variegated scenes, eminent or rare characters, and extraordinary incidents; these are the objects which chiefly captivate the attention in the writings of travellers; where pleasing pictures charm more than philosophical sentiments, and instruction must give precedency to the superior power of entertainment. The author now before us seems not to have sacrificed at the shrine of fantastic enjoyment; he aims at informing the understanding, rather than gratifying the imagination, and is more of a speculative than descriptive traveller. His journies seem not to have been wholly undertaken from curiosity; and, from the time that has elapsed since most of them were performed, it is evident that he has not been very forward in submitting his observations to the public. But though a few temporary circumstances may lose their effect from that delay, his remarks, in general, derive additional weight, from being confirmed by subsequent reflection.

The Journey to Barbary, we are informed, was an embassy from general Cornwallis, governor of Gibraltar, to the emperor of Morocco, on various public business. In this excursion, he and his company landed a mile from Tetuan, towards which town they immediately proceeded.

Tetuan, says our author, is considered as the best town in these dominions; but to us it appeared a very wretched place. A dreary silence, poverty, indolence, and dirt, were to us the striking features of their first and most populous city. Its inhabitants are, however, their best looking people, being probably a mixed race from Spain, Arabs, and natives. Upon the banks of that little river which passes near the town, there is some tolerable cultivation, and some little gardens; but all of them jealously concealed, and curiously shut up, almost as much as their houses in town, where there is not a window nor an opening to be seen.

Among so many new objects, one hardly knows which to mention; for to mention all is impossible. The total want of society, and almost of conversation among themselves, seems to us equally dismal and surprising. People bred in such countries are totally ignorant of the social principle which we suppose natural to man. Though yoked by nature to each other, and brought to live together in towns for mutual convenience, yet are they unacquainted with the pleasures of society, and incapable of enjoying them: their very houses and gardens look like prisons to shut themselves up in, and to exclude every eye,

and almost the light of the sun, and seem, as it were, to turn away from each other. When by chance two or three people are seen sitting together, which is seldom, and commonly upon their heels on the dirty ground against a wall, it is all in silence: we seldom see them converse, I think, except when angry. Such are Eastern manners, and the effects of oppression! Men, while oppressed, are not communicative; and they must probably be at their ease before they can be sociable and humane.

'The French say, *qu'il faut aimer quelque chose toujours*, but I think these people love nothing. A sullen indolence and indifference seem to exclude every passion and principle of activity; and we do not yet see where the labour can be, in this country, sufficient to maintain its inhabitants. The Moorish character may be somewhat changed and degenerated since the times they flourished in Spain. The iron hand of tyranny has helped to render them still more selfish and malevolent; and what is worse for society, helpless and indolent beings. Such are the subjects that despotism must ever expect to form! Yet we are told they love money to excess. Human nature is full of inconsistencies. This love of money seems to be a plant that will grow any where, and thrive best where it seems to have the least nourishment.

'But to go on with our journey. After wrangling for three days with a stupid and brutish governor of Tetuan (who is a shoemaker and a private soldier) concerning horses and mules, though he had the emperor's orders to furnish us; then nearly three days journey, chequered with various disputes and accidents, now of small importance, through a variable country, with some fine woody hills, we arrived at this place.

★ We were carried directly to the prince, saluted with great guns, and attended by a rabble of what they call soldiers. The prince's impatience to see us, his eager manner of receiving and surveying us with an apparent pleasure and openness of countenance, gave some hopes of a natural curiosity and warmth of heart; but we have already had time to be undeceived; for momentary exertions soon give way to habitual sloth or luxury. Such is too often the unhappy fate of high birth, and is here perhaps inevitable.

Our presents were likewise produced. My celestial globe attracted most of his attention, and I was in hopes he understood something of it, having read and heard of their being formerly addicted to astronomy and mathematics; but was soon undeceived by his questions and observations, though artfully contrived to conceal his ignorance; but ignorance can seldom be concealed. He said, that he had once a master who knew much more than all the Christians.'

Our author informs us, that this country, so far as he had proceeded, is well varied in hill and dale, and tolerably wood-

ed.

ed; though not so well watered, and a little mountainous. It is capable of every kind of cultivation, but at present, lies almost in the state of nature. It is peopled to about one fifth of what it might easily maintain, and the labour of the inhabitants is probably not above one-fourth of what it might be with more skill and industry. Both in the country and the towns, sitting, smoking, and prayers, we are told, employ a great part of their time.

The miserable state of this extensive country affords our author much subject for political and moral reflection, to which, indeed, he appears to have a natural propensity. He paints, in strong and lively colours, the pernicious effects of a despotic government, an intolerant religion, and manners and customs diametrically repugnant to the civilisation of society.

The next class of Letters is from France, and of a later date than the preceding. They are occupied with a variety of reflections on the national character, taste, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and almost every subject of political speculation. But as much has already been written on those topics, and we meet with nothing particularly entitled to notice, we shall proceed to the second volume of the work.

The author enters Spain by the Pyrenees, where he is charmed with the magnificence of the prospect; but soon the surrounding poverty began to appear in various shapes. He observes, however, that the towns and villages in those northern provinces have generally something romantic and interesting in the situation and manner of building. Some retain a certain air of antique magnificence; but as they are generally approaching to a state of ruin, they excite a melancholy idea of some former better times. The bold and romantic situation of several of their little towns, pendent on the sides of rocky mountains, over a rapid stream, suggests to the fancy the idea of a hardy and vigorous race of people; which is confirmed by seeing the children carelessly climbing the steep hills and precipices, and early employed in manly occupations. We are informed that, in this mountainous country, a society and academy has been lately established for the encouragement of useful arts and knowledge. They have yearly meetings alternately at Vitoria, Vergara, and Bilbao; but being cramped by the jealous spirit of their government and religion, they are obliged to be very cautious in the choice of professors and books, as well as the subjects of their enquiry.

We shall lay before our readers a part of the eighteenth Letter, in which the author treats of the wit, manners, and character of the people of this country.

The Spaniards in general, and the Andalusians in particular, with imaginations so warm and fertile, have a powerful taste and disposition for wit, and many of both sexes are great adepts in that way: with the most composed and steady countenance they will long keep the table in a roar, and are infinitely amusing: but as is usual with warm and impetuous fancy, there is often a want of delicacy, of sound taste and judgment: they attempt and relish all species of wit, and often prefer the lower and coarser kinds: but let us beware of becoming too difficult to please, which we English, I believe, often are; we may refine too much, and must lose by being too nice and squeamish. A good strong appetite will digest all natural food; and genuine wit, when not too loathsome with indecency, flattery, or soured with severity, ought always to please. Though greatly changed and Frenchified since their Bourbon connexions, they have not yet lost all those enthusiastic and romantic notions which once distinguished and raised them, however ridiculously, above other mortals. In every rank we yet find some of those old and dignified characters, with a certain elevation of soul, and many lofty ideas, though accompanied with what our modern delicacy may consider as a ridiculous pride.

Though politically they are now of small consideration, except in their own ideas, and but little of their former national greatness or character may remain, besides their pride, yet individually the country still abounds in valuable characters, or rather in materials of which such characters may be readily formed when wanting. We meet with as excellent and amiable qualities of mind as in the most polished and enlightened nations: this is often, I believe, the case in rude and misgoverned countries; virtues arise as they are wanted, where the soil and materials are good, and here they are excellent. Wise nature seems solicitous in bringing every condition of society nearly to a level of happiness. If you live any time among them, you will meet with souls capable of every virtue, but may observe how few occasions or motives there are to practise any, in this state of society and government. They are obviously made for generosity, probity, magnanimity, resolution, perseverance, and still retain a certain cool and habitual equanimity of temper and sound judgment, which we find in no other nation, joined to such warmth of heart and fancy. But, even on this foundation, you will too often find a structure of vice and ignorance; especially in the lower classes, degrees of indolence, idleness, malevolence, depravity of taste and disposition, which exhibit at once to view the powers of habit and of a bad government, and the dregs or ruins of a most respectable national character. The Spaniards, though naturally deep and artful politicians, have still something so nobly frank and honest in their disposition, that they are not, I think, in proportion, politically insidious or treacherous, unless the French make

make them so. Of the modern national characters, I am inclined to place the Spanish and English, so nearly alike, among the first. I believe there is likewise something rather superior still perceptible in the modern Roman character, as well as in their language and manner; and also in the Mahinotes, or modern Lacedæmonians, and in the Macedonians.

* The manners of the politer societies here, and of the higher ranks, are already too closely copied from the French, who, you know, are not naturally delicate nor sentimental, but artificially refined by fashion. By means of the ladies in Spain, who readily adopt the liberty of French manners, which engrafted on their own, they carry beyond the original, this nation will gradually be Frenchified, in spite of all the old Dons and old antipathies. The women being, of late, admitted to more freedom and society, and at a period of loose manners, retaining all their old habits of art and intrigue, the freedom of intercourse between the sexes will probably be carried farther here than in the more polished countries, whose vices they have acquired, without passing through the same *media* or degrees of civilization and arts of luxury. Vice, in various shapes, seems already here to stalk forth almost naked and alone, unrestrained by habits and refinements, which elsewhere grow up with it. All leads to a coarse and unadorned kind of materialism in pleasure, to degrees of depravity and satiety, in which they will overtake their more refined neighbours, who began the same career so long before them. However, the fair sex, as usual, are still far more refined and sentimental than the men, and as they are gaining more influence in society, may retard or regulate the progress of depravity. Every stranger who stays long enough to understand them, is captivated with the spirit, grace, and humour of their conversation. You know something of the romantic force of their passions, their strong and inviolable attachments, especially when heightened by the difficulties of intrigue. Though the jealousy of husbands seems now worn out of fashion, the spirit of it is preserved among the lovers, and love is still an object of the first importance in Spain. Their numerous love-songs have still many graces, and though tinged with the hyperbolical false taste of the times, are often highly expressive, refined, and laconic. —

— ‘Where we find such fine abilities and natural good sense, joined to so much ignorance and false taste, such loose manners and unrestrained vices, with great inquisitorial severity in religious observances, it is plain, that the church, their only school, aims not at the improvement of morals, or of learning, but at power: nay, I think the most superstitious nations are the most wicked and debauched, and we may almost measure their degrees of vice by the apparent ardour of their devotion. There is, perhaps, more probity, though less appearance of religion, in London, than in any other great town in Europe.’

In almost all the Letters from this country, we find our

author, as usual, moralising. His remarks, in general, appear to be well founded, and his reflections are judicious. Those, therefore, who are fond of political speculation, will read him with pleasure and advantage; but he is not a traveller much adapted to the entertainment of the inquisitive, the superficial, or the frivolous. The Letters from Portugal are of the same nature, and nearly on the same subjects as the former; and the concluding Letter from Jersey relates to the government of that island.

Fourteen Sonnets, Elegiac and Descriptive, written during a Tour.
4to. 1s. Dilly.

THE melancholy Muse of Smith has decorated the shrine of Poetry with many a beautiful wreath of this kind. These Sonnets, however, are of a much superior cast to any we have lately seen. With great simplicity of style, and tenderness of sentiment, they unite a masculine vigour and correctness, and possess a very large share of poetical invention. They are written, as the title indicates, under the immediate impressions which the author experienced from objects that occasionally presented themselves in his wanderings: several of them were inspired by the romantic scenes of the North of England and Scotland. The subjects are all of a nature most congenial to poetry, and he every where describes and feels like a true poet. This collection exemplifies the ancient observation,

——— patriæ quis exul
Se quoque fugit? ———

The author appears to treasure up a favourite melancholy, which accompanies him continually, and is called forth on every occasion, but it is of the gentlest kind, and never seems to degenerate into any complaint and discontent. The following sonnet is perhaps one of the best.

O Time, who know'st a lenient hand to lay
Softest on Sorrow's wound, and slowly thence,
(Lulling to sad repose the weary sense)
Stealest the long-forgotten pang away;
On thee I rest my only hope at last.
And think when thou hast dried the bitter tear,
That flows in vain o'er all my soul held dear,
I may look back on many a sorrow past,
And meet life's peaceful evening with a smile—
As some poor bird, at day's departing hour,
Sings in the sun-beam of the transient show'r
Forgetful, tho' its wings are wet the while—
Yet ah! how much must that poor heart endure,
Which hopes from thee, and thee alone, a cure.

These

These poems are evidently written from the heart, and are the efforts of natural genius, with little assistance from study or learning, and with no appearance of imitation of preceding models. We hope that a writer of so amiable a mind, and whose feelings are so interesting, will not remain a prey to a lasting melancholy.

Zeluco. — Various Views of Human Nature, taken from Life and Manners, Foreign and Domestic. Two Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

IF this work be, as fame has reported, the production of Dr. Moore, we think it greatly inferior to his other labours. As we do not often find in these volumes the acute observations, the pointed sarcasms, or the pleasant fallies of the traveller, Fame, in this instance as in others, may have deceived us. *Zeluco*, notwithstanding its size and form, is a novel, designed to show that vice, immorality, and inhumanity, though attended with the most prosperous external circumstances, occasion a constant misery; and spread over the horizon of the vicious man's prospects a gloomy cloud. The series of adventures is not, we think, conducted with such address as to keep the attention alive, and to interest the feelings in the event of the story, though the moral is constantly kept in view, and every page reminds us of the necessity of being virtuous if we would be happy. It is not perhaps easy to awaken any very strong interest in behalf of an immoral man; for even in *Le Sage*, however we may be entertained with the genuine humour of *Gil Blas*, few readers are, we imagine, very solicitous whether the hero terminates his career at court or at the gallows. If *Clarissa* has done any very great injury to the morals of mankind, it is from its hero being an exception to this observation.

The great merit of this work consists in the conversations and disquisitions: that on the slave-trade, another on popery, with the simple unaffected morality of *Bertram's* story, are, in our opinion, excellent. But we mean not to say that these passages contain all the merit of the work; for though we have been particularly pleased with them, there are many others which deserve attention. As we cannot analyse the story, we shall not extract any part which may suffer from its not being properly understood. The following narrative is not connected with the principal history, and is, we think, truly characteristic of the different dispositions of the French and English.

'In a late war between France and Great Britain, an English vessel of superior force took a French frigate, after an obstinate engagement, in which the French officers displayed that intrepidity which is so natural to them. The frigate was brought into a commercial town upon the English coast, and the officers were treated with great hospitality by some of the principal inhabitants: one very rich merchant in particular invited them frequently

frequently to his house, where he entertained them in a very magnificent manner.—The first day on which they dined with him, his lady behaved with such peculiar attention to the prisoners, that she seemed to neglect all the other guests at her table. After the company had withdrawn, she spoke highly to her husband of the politeness and easy agreeable manners of the French nation, and added, that it gave her pleasure to perceive that the French gentlemen who had just left them, instead of giving way to vain repining, or allowing their spirits to be depressed by their misfortune, had shewn the utmost cheerfulness and gaiety during the whole repast, all except one gentleman, who seemed much dejected, and almost entirely overcome with the idea of being a prisoner. This she accounted for by supposing that his loss was greater than that of all the rest put together; and she apprehended from the obstinate silence he had retained, and from the discontent and melancholy so strongly marked in his countenance, that the poor gentleman would not long survive his misfortune.

‘I cannot imagine who you mean,’ said the husband.

‘The lady described the man so exactly, that it was impossible to mistake him.’

‘That unfortunate gentleman,’ said the husband, ‘is none of the prisoners, he is the captain of the English vessel who took them!’

Subjects for Painters. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 3s. 6d. Kearsley.

WE are glad, that we can again meet the former companion of our fire-side and the cheerer of winter's gloom, with smiles; but they must be smiles blended with frowns, for he has displeased as much as he entertained us. This work is of so miscellaneous a kind, that it seems to be formed from the gleanings of his common place-book; for tales, anecdotes, and odes, some of which can never furnish even a single sketch, are introduced among the ‘subjects.’ Peter cannot forget his former antipathies: Mr. West and his royal employer receive their usual share of satire, which, were it only from the constant repetition, will displease. We may perhaps seriously ask, if to undervalue the picture of a favoured artist, be an unpardonable offence; a crime never to be expiated or sufficiently punished?

In this farrago, there are some excellent anecdotes, told in Pindar's best manner. There are little morceaux, which are of no class, that we think admirable; and there are many old thread-bare stories in a new dress, and many of inferior merit. If we were to compare this work with Peter's other productions, we should say, as of *Tristram Shandy*, that perhaps, in some parts, the author never rose so high, and

and that, in others, he has seldom sunk so low. We cannot always select the best, because our limits will not allow of long extracts; though, as usual, we shall endeavour to find some short and characteristic passage: but Peter has been so much plundered by the diurnal vehicles of intelligence, that it is not easy to find any such, which has not already been transcribed.

‘The PETIT MAITRE and the MAN on the WHEEL.

At Paris sometime since, a murd’ring man,
A German, and a most unlucky chap,
Sad, stumbling at the threshold of his plan,
Fell into Justice’s strong trap.

The bungler was condemn’d to grace the wheel,
On which the dullest fibres learn to feel;

His limbs *secundum artem* to be broke
Amidst ten thousand people, p’rhaps, or more;

Whenever Monsieur Ketch apply’d a stroke,
The culprit, like a bullock, made a roar.

A slipshod *petit maitre* skipping by,
Stepp’d up to him, and check’d him for his cry—

‘Boh!’ quoth the German; ‘an’t I’ pon de wheel?’
D’ye tink my nerfs and bons can’t feel?’

‘Sir,’ quoth the beau; ‘don’t, don’t be in a passion;

I’ve nought to say about your situation;
But making such a hideous noise in France,
Fellow, is contrary to *bienfiance*.’

Sermons on Education. By the Rev. E. W. Whitaker. 8vo.
4s. in Boards. Rivingtons.

THESE Sermons are eight in number, all written on the eighth verse of the Epistle to the Philippians, ‘whatsoever things are true, &c.’ The first discourse treats of the principles of human discipline and instruction, in which the author shews the absolute necessity of influencing the young mind by prohibitory laws and the fear of punishment. At the same time he gives parents some good advice relative to their own conduct in the infliction of it. The second Sermon is a discussion on the acquisition of knowledge. The principal object of this discourse is to direct to such a system of instruction, as may furnish the mind with sufficient real knowledge to see through the sophistry and shallow hypotheses of infidel writers. The third Sermon is on instruction in the duties of religion: here are introduced some useful observations on the necessity of inculcating the fear of God, the observation of the sabbath, and on swearing. The fourth is on instruction in social duties: the subjects discussed in it are, the strictest re-

gard

gard to honesty, even in trifles, the tattling of busy bodies, dueling, gaming and politics. Upon this last subject we shall make one short observation. Had our ancestors understood the scripture to command so great a degree of deference and submission to political superiors as this author apprehends, we doubt whether we should at this time be in the enjoyment of that glorious constitution, which exalts the dignity and happiness of these nations, and excites the envy of the world.

The fifth treats on the means of promoting the practice of the personal virtues. Here the author introduces some good dissuatives against instilling family-pride and haughtiness into the minds of young people, recommends the greatest caution in our conversations in their presence, and laments the vices which prevail in public schools, for want of proper regulations: the principal one he recommends is the constant expulsion of the disorderly and vicious. The sixth is on good manners, complacency of behaviour and propriety in dress. The seventh is on the accomplishments of fencing, dancing, writing, arithmetic, languages, oratory, the sciences, and the belles lettres. In the eighth and last discourse the author recapitulates and enforces all that he had been recommending in those that precede.

From the analysis we have given of this work, our readers will be enabled to judge of what they have to expect from its perusal. It contains no new system of education, nor any thing to interest the fancy or amuse the imagination. But, what is of infinitely greater importance, it seriously admonishes us to bring up our children in the belief of the doctrines of Christianity and in the practice of its virtues. The language is remarkably plain, we had almost said homely. We shall add a short specimen and with it conclude our article: we have chosen it with some care, as it is equally a proof of the author's seriousness, perhaps of his extreme familiarity of style, and his good sense.

After the virtues themselves, the apostle recommends attention to the most amiable mode of practising them, and to this belongs whatever may be justly called good manners, which are the natural fruits of benevolence extending itself to every thing by which the comfort of others may be affected, and appearances by which their opinions are so generally influenced. These naturally arranged themselves under the three great branches of our duty as depending thereon; under the first therefore, I spake to the opposite faults of indevotion and superstition, of indifference and bigotry in religion, attempting to point out to you those considerations by which young minds would be most securely fortified against these. Under the second,

cond, I urged attention to candour, politeness, and diffidence, lessons of gentleness and mildness to inferiours, and instruction on conferring benefits without ostentation or reproach. I subjoined exhortations to make the payment of those various little civilities which render society more pleasant, easy through early habit: the love of precedence, which so frequently occasions unbecoming behaviour next presented itself as a subject of remark belonging to the third great branch. Nor did I think either mocking at the foibles of others, or rudeness of speech and address, or the several species of affectation foreign to this subject, as they all proceed from the heart's not being perfectly tempered, and contribute in some measure to obscure the good qualities of those guilty of them. The mention of affectation naturally led me to point out the great difference between real and artificial elegance of manners, and the credit which even the latter can obtain from fashion, forms an argument for the necessity of example, in all who wish to see their children possessed of the former, and I closed this discourse with some observations on the necessity of decorum in appearance.

New and Old Principles of Trade compared; or a Treatise on the Principles of Commerce between Nations; with an Appendix.
8vo. 3s. in Boards. Johnson.

THIS author, after stating his definition of trade, attempts to deduce from it, among others, the following conclusions, 'that nations flourish in proportion as their exports are many and their imports are few, is a position inconsistent with the institution of commerce; commerce not only being meant to procure us enjoyments, but naturally consisting in that complete interchange of commodities, which is thus objected to.' In his next deduction, he endeavours to establish it as a principle, that an attempt to open or to seize fugitive channels for commerce, before industry is ripe on both sides, with articles to be exchanged, is premature and improvident.

To this doctrine, in its full extent, we cannot accede, as it tends to dissuade us from exerting ourselves to obtain and secure the commerce of any nation, where it may be possible, that a barter-trade should never be established.

This writer shews himself throughout to be of the modern sect of the antimonopolists; endeavouring strenuously to prove that all trade ought to be free and uncontrouled, neither encouraged by permanent bounties, contracted by monopolies, nor restrained by penalties: these are what he styles the *New Principles*. We have long been of opinion that, in theory,

theory, the writers on this side of the question have in many respects the better of the argument; and doubtless could all the nations of the earth be persuaded to adopt this liberal system, it would dry up the source of many sanguinary wars, and would greatly promote the general comfort and happiness of mankind. But in practice, should the government of this country, for example, admit of the free exportation of wool and the free importation of manufactured silk during one year, by way of experiment, we should see, at the end of it, thousands of our manufacturers starving in the streets.

However readily we may allow, that the greatest freedom of trade should be admitted in articles of the produce of the country, about which the labour and industry of the inhabitants cannot be peculiarly employed in rendering them more valuable and profitable in commercial exchange; yet it does not follow that, if any nation possess peculiar superiorities over all others in *manufactures*, that it would be wise to forego that superiority by parting with the utensils or the raw material. Unless the French obtain the English wool, for instance, it is ascertained that they cannot work their own to advantage; and consequently, prohibiting the exportation of that produce, alone keeps up the superiority and vent of our manufacture. Though it be true, that, by selling the wool abroad, the farmer would perhaps make double price of it, yet we suspect that it would be no encouragement to agriculture, to which our author and most other modern fashionable philosophers seem so partial; for having lost our manufactures, the carcase of the sheep would be sold at less than half its present value, as our lower class of people would be obliged to live like the poor unemployed Spaniard, on a scanty portion of vegetables and bread.

Though these and many other observations of a similar nature have occurred to us in the perusal of this work, yet we must do the author the justice to observe, that it contains much cogent reasoning and profound observation. We therefore do not hesitate to recommend it to the perusal of those who wish to obtain information upon the important subject on which it treats; a subject which at present seems to engage the attention of all Europe much more than at any former period.

The body of this work contains only forty-one, and the Appendix eighty-two pages. Had the whole been consolidated, the arguments would have been more connected, forcible, and perspicuous.

C.

An

An Answer to the Rev. Mr. Clarkson's Essay on the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species, particularly the African; in a Series of Letters, from a Gentleman in Jamaica to his Friend in London. By G. Francklyn, Esq. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Walter.

WE are surprised, after all that has been said upon the subject, that controversial writers do not perceive how much they injure the cause they are so desirous of supporting, by personalities and invective. However good their argument, by this conduct they are more likely to exasperate than to convince their antagonists; and unprejudiced enquirers are led to suspect that the author's judgment and his representations are biased by his passion and resentment. The antagonists of the slave-trade have hurt their cause by this fatal error; and our author, in return, has by his warmth and eagerness weakened the force of his reasoning, and the credibility of his statements.

The question of the slave-trade is now before its competent judges; and, pendente lite, we shall refrain from entering minutely into its merits. But surely this writer relies too much on his Latin quotations from Cicero, &c. to prove the universality of slavery. All that this can prove is, that every man who obeys the dictates of his passions is a slave.—Mr. Francklyn concludes, that therefore slavery is universal. Such kind of reasoning must injure any cause.

Our author has detected some inaccuracies and contradictions in Mr. Clarkson's statement of the comparative number of slaves taken in wars excited by Europeans, or by the practice of kidnapping. But this does not so greatly affect the merits of the question as to deserve to be so much insisted upon. He points out greater inaccuracies, and much confident unqualified assertion on other parts of the subject, and calls on Mr. Clarkson for his authorities and proofs, which he cannot withhold without forfeiting his character and the success of his cause. Our author contends he has often trusted to authorities which he has not cited, and as often been deceived. For the present, we must observe, that servants and slaves differ only in the degree of authority which masters have over them. But the question, in a moral view, seems to resolve itself into this—Whether it is justifiable for one man to force another into his service for life?—And whether one human being ought ever to possess so much authority over another as a West Indian planter does over the African? As to the policy of the measure, it is quite a different question; and

and to Mr. Clarkson's treatise on the Impolicy of the Slave Trade this author has not replied.

We have been surprised that the merchants and planters have said so little in their defence, when there were so many circumstances which might be suggested. We are more surprised that, by rash intemperate publications, they have fallen into the error which has so much hurt their antagonists. A candid dispassionate view of the question, a calm refutation of many unsupported calumnies, and a careful comparison of the numerous contradictions of their adversaries, would be of essential service, we will not say to their cause, but to the cause of truth, and a proper compensation to a numerous body, whose character in this contest has been so materially injured. We shall extract a short passage, where our author pursues Mr. Clarkson with more than usual closeness.

'The vehemence of Mr. Clarkson's humanity, has betrayed him into such glaring contradictions, that it may not be amiss to bring a few of them into one point of view, in proof that his pen has neither been guided by truth, candour, or common sense.

'In the preface to his Essay, p. 9, he says, "most of the slaves, unconditionally freed by the Quakers, returned without solicitation to their former masters, to serve them at stated wages as freemen. The work they did then was better done than before, and more of it in the same time."

'Does not this prove, contrary to his assertion, p. 148, of the Essay, "that Slaves are *not* oppressed by a daily task of such immoderate labour, as human nature is utterly unable to perform, and that freemen, to earn their daily bread, are obliged to work harder than slaves?"

'Essay, p. 94, of 100,000 slaves annually exported from Africa, only one in 100 are prisoners of war or convicts.

'P. 129, 20,000 perish in the transportation.

'P. 139, 20,000 more are killed in the seasoning, that is within two years; so that 30,000, he says, are annually killed by these means; which will leave an annual supply of 70,000.

'P. 252, We are told 100,000 are destroyed before one useful individual is obtained. Thus if 70,000 are annually obtained, the number murdered in obtaining them, with those which die in the transportation and seasoning, must amount annually to 7,000,000,000, (seven billions). Gracious God! (says he) what a multitude!

'P. 140. He had not increased his number of *buckram-men* so greatly. He then says, no more than 20,000 are destroyed before the colonies obtain any additional stocks. Indeed, he forgets, at the bottom of that page, what he says in the middle of it. In the former, he makes the whole number destroyed

ed

ed by transportation, and disease, no more than 50,000 in two years.

‘P. 95. He shews, only 1 in 100 of the Negroes transported, are convicts, or prisoners of war.

‘P. 252. He makes the number of prisoners of war only 10 per cent. instead of one, that he may, for thence alledge 60,000 are killed, in order to obtain 6000 prisoners.—But I will not fatigue you further with an enumeration of such absurdities.’

Plantarum Icones, hactenus ineditæ, plerumque ad Plantas in Herbario Linnæano conservatas delineatæ. Auctore Jacobo Edwards Smith, Fasciculus I. Folio. 1l. 1s. in Boards. White.

FROM the possessor of the Linnæan collection we have long since had reason to expect some additions to the stock of natural history; and it gives us pleasure to observe, that while he has contributed to our information, and gratified our curiosity, he has adopted the happy medium, which we have so often recommended, of uniting accuracy with so much elegance as to render his work not a costly collection of pictures, beyond the reach of many private individuals, but a real acquisition to science and the natural historian.

The utility of plates, within these limits, will be readily acknowledged; and it is with justness observed, that ‘the species of plants are now so numerous as to render every assistance necessary to the botanist, not only to distinguish the different vegetables, but to preserve them, thus distinguished, in the mind.’ The work before us, the author himself remarks, ‘is useful rather than highly beautiful; and valuable, rather as it contains uncommon plants, than for the splendor of the engravings or the type.’ Yet this modest declaration should be attended, on our parts, with a more accurate discrimination of the merits of the work. The type is more than neat; perhaps more than may in strictness be called handsome: the engravings are exceedingly clear, distinct, and expressive. We cannot compare them with the original plants; but a botanist might easily describe a plant scientifically from inspecting the plates. We have tried the experiment in more than one instance, and compared our description with the author’s, which appeared very nearly the same, except what relates to colour and thickness. In the Linnæan collection there are many plants which he has described; but of which no engravings have yet appeared: there are more which have not yet been completely described. Many are peculiar to this collection, and many have been mistaken, even by the younger Linnæus in his supplement. To these our author’s labours are confined, for the newly-discovered plants are found and delineated in Jacquin and L’Heri-

tier's works. Dr. Smith apologises for the want of elegance, which arises from his having copied from dried specimens; but he thinks there is no inaccuracy except where, as in a very few instances, the specimens are defective. In some respects there were many advantages to be derived from the Linnæan collection, since many botanists, particularly Mutis, were accustomed to send drawings with the plants: even these, however, have been accurately compared with the specimens, and sometimes corrected. Dried specimens are smaller than the plants; but the existence of dried specimens only shows the plant to be curious and uncommon.

Our author has been very careful in ascertaining and describing the specific differences; and means to enrich the future fasciculi with several plants from the herbary of Tournefort, which was kindly communicated by M. D'Aubenton, at the request of M. Broussonet. A few from this collection occur, we perceive, in the number before us. As we trust the present fasciculus will be followed by many more, and form by degrees a very valuable and important work, we have been a little diffuse in explaining its design, and ascertaining its real merits. We must now turn to the fasciculus, which contains twenty-five species, in as many plates.

The first is the *calceolaria nana*, not very unlike the *aiton* of Fothergill, described in the *Hortus Kewensis*. It was gathered by Commerçon, on the coast near the Straits of Magellan, where nature has exhausted her efforts in forming Patagonians, leaving the rest of her scanty productions dwarfs.

The second is another species of *calceolaria* from the same spot, the *plantaginea*, but the flowers are not expanded. The third, the *calceolaria ovata*, the seeds of which were brought from Peru by Dombey, greatly resembles the plate of Mutis, from which the description of the *calceolaria integrifolia*, Lin. fil. Sup. p. 86. was taken. The *calceolaria integrifolia* of the thirteenth edition of the *Systema Vegetabilium*, appears to be a very different plant. Our author's species flowered in the royal botanic garden at Paris in 1781. Another *calceolaria* brought from New Spain by Mutis, follows. It appears to be a beautiful plant; the leaves covered below with a thick wool, which is well expressed in the plate: they are connate-perfoliated, from which the plant has obtained the trivial name of *perfoliata*. The flowers are in bunches, at the top of the branch.

The fifth plate is from Tournefort's *Herbal*; and the plant was found by him in Armenia. It is called the *salvia rosæfolia*. Dr. Smith doubts a little whether it be what Buxbaum calls *salvia foliis ebuli*. If it be so, he adds, Buxbaum's plate is very incorrect.

The

The next plant is a new genus, called after the ingenious, the intelligent, but fanciful Rousseau, who contended that Cicero would have written like Linnæus, if Cicero had been a botanist. Linnæus had perpetuated the name of his botanical correspondent by affixing it to a genus, which his son by mistake; or design, changed to *Russelia*; but our author has fulfilled the intention of the Swedish naturalist, by giving the name of Rousseau to a beautiful plant, gathered by Commerſon, in the island of Mauritius. It belongs to the tetrandria monogynia; and, in habit, is not unlike the magnolia, though the flower is very different: corolla monopetala, campanulata quadrifida, laciniis acutis revolutis. Another very beautiful plant, engraved also with much elegance, Dr. Smith calls *Thouinia*, from the very respectable botanist Thouin. This is also a new genus, for the *Thouinia nutans* of Thunberg, in the Supplement of the younger Linnæus, on inspection, was found to be the *chionanthus zeylanica*. Our author has therefore, with strict propriety, given this name to a plant found by Commerſon in the island of Madagascar.

The subject of the eighth plate is the *dichondra repens* of Forster, described in the Supplement of the younger Linnæus, as the *sibthorpia evolvulacea*; but the description was drawn up by his father, who had not seen the flowers, as he had not then received the drawings of Mutis, by whom it was gathered in New Spain. Our author, from these drawings, discovered it to be a *dichondra*. The *dichondra sericea* of Swartz is probably a variety of this species; and many others have been discovered.

The *ehrharta panicea*, gathered at the Cape of Good Hope, by Sonnerat, seems to be specifically different from the *ehrharta capensis*. The plant was taken from the collection of Thouin, and seems to belong to the hexandria digynia.

The *turræa virens* is described by Linnæus (*Mantis*. 2. 150.) and was found by Kænig, near some volcanos in the East Indies. The *turræa virens* & *pubescens*, described by Hellenius, in the Stockholm Transactions for 1788, seems, in our author's opinion, to be doubtful. The *turræa maculata* is a new species, found by Commerſon in Madagascar. The *turræa sericea* is another species, from the same island: each is well delineated and described in this Number.

The thirteenth plate contains the *filene chloræfolia*, found by Tournefort in Armenia, and seemingly taken from his Herbal. The *stellaria dichotoma*, found by Gmelin in Siberia, is represented in the next plate. It is described in the *Sp. Pl.* ed. 2d. p. 603. Dr. Smith observes, that he knows not by what authority it is said to be a plant of Switzerland, as it was never

found by the botanists of that country. 'Hallerus enim pro *stellaria dichotoma* Lin. varietatem *st. nemorum* descripsit, et dein, *more suo*, plantas a se invicem non differre asseruit.' The *stellaria cerastoides* Lin. is described and figured from the *Species Plantarum* & *Flora Suecica*. Linnæus confounded different plants with it at different times, as appears from his *Herbal*.

Arenaria dianthoides is the subject of the sixteenth plate, and is taken from Tournefort's *Herbal*. The *arenaria cucubaloïdes* is another plant from the same collection: it differs from the *arenaria gypsophiloides*, in the shape of the leaves, which are obovated, and not lanceolated. The *spargula laricina* Lin. is a very rare, and it seems to be a very beautiful plant: it has been sometimes confounded with the *spargula saginoides*; and it greatly resembles the *arenariæ*. It was first found by Steller, in Siberia, and called by Gmelin an *alsine*.

A small *rubus*, the *rubus geoides*, found by Commerfon near the Straits of Magellan, is represented in the nineteenth plate. It differs specifically from the *rubus dalibarba*, the subject of the next plate, in the shape of the leaves, the foot-stalks, and the petals. It was at first distinguished as a new genus by Linnæus, and was styled *dalibarba*; but it flourished in Kew gardens for some years, till it died, and the species was brought again, in 1788, from America. It was first found by Kalm. 'Hill in *peffimo libro* "Vegetable System," vol. xvi. tab. 11. figuram nomine rubi *dalibarbæ* evulgavit, quæ nil nisi icon vitiosa rubi *chamæmori*, e Gerardo *emaculato*, p. 1420, parum mutata, est. Hinc plantam rarissimam *Canadæ*, in montibus *Angliæ borealibus* nasci falso asseruit.'

The *sonchus alpinus* Lin. furnishes the twenty-first plate. It is the tallest shrub of Lapland, and was brought from thence by Linnæus, in 1732: it grew very commonly on the sides of the mountains. The real alpine *sonchus* has not yet been figured in any former work: the plant, generally distinguished by that name, is the Canadian *sonchus*, as appears from Kalm's *Herbal*: and the mistake of authors has arisen from the synonyms of Linnæus, which are erroneous, and from not attending to his specific characters, which are clear and exact. The synonym of Gronovius, referred by Linnæus to the *sonchus Canadensis*, really belongs, in our author's opinion, to the *sonchus floridanus*.

The *lobelia columnnea* is described in the Supplement of the younger Linnæus, though the description was written by the father, though the specific character was supplied by the son. There is a mistake in this character, which is sufficiently curious. The leaves are said to be crenated; but, in reality, they are entire; and as they are rolled back, the fibres of the leaves
which

which are less obedient stand forward, and give a crenated appearance to the edge: the plant was brought from New Spain by Mutis, and greatly resembles the *columnnea scandens*.

The *arethusa biplumata*, the subject of the twenty-third plate, is a singular plant, gathered on the shore of the Straits of Magellan, by Commerfon. The two lower leaves are barbated, or rather feathered, from which it has obtained its trivial name. It is described by the younger Linnæus in his Supplement.

The *passiflora adulterina* is also described in Linnæus's Supplement, and taken from Mutis's unpublished drawings. The *passiflora mixta* is taken entirely from the same source. These species prove, that what Linnæus considered in his Dissertation on the *Passiflora*, in the first volume of the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, as the involucre, is the true calix.

A Treatise of the Materia Medica. By William Cullen, M. D.
(Continued from p. 442.)

WHEN our very respectable author begins to treat of medicines, he apologises for introducing again some vegetables which had been before considered as articles of diet, since the distinction between aliments and medicines cannot, in a practical treatise, be always strictly kept in view. His first class is that of astringents, a title, which in the most accurate sense comprehends those medicines which corrugate the simple solid, and in chemical experiments turn black, when mixed with chalybeate solutions. That astringents are often tonics our author allows, but that they are universally so, he seems disposed to doubt or to deny. There is a class of bodies which are powerful tonics, though they possess not the least astringency; and on the other hand it is, we believe, certain, that the tonic power of any body is not in proportion to the degree in which it corrugates the tongue or strikes a black colour with chalybeates. Yet, on the whole, we do not perceive that these reasons have any farther force than to induce us to make a subdivision of astringents into those of the corrugantia and corroborantia. The bitters which lead Dr. Cullen to separate the tonics from astringents, are often combined with an astringent principle; and the astringents on the other hand have frequently some bitterness; so that in a crowded list, though some, like the gentian and *simaruba*, may be decidedly styled bitters, and others like the *terra japonica*, galls, tormentil, and sloes may be as accurately called astringent, the greater number combine some proportion of either quality. There is one strong line of distinction which may be drawn, but

which cannot be applied in the arrangement ; and it is, that bitters are pretty generally laxative in a slight imperfect degree, while the astringents have the contrary effect. This, which is perhaps a secondary effect of the bitters by their chemical change on the bile, has given them for ages the name of aperients, and has suggested their application in cases of infarcted viscera, at a time when people, perhaps having more faith, were more obedient and more willing to swallow vast loads of a nauseous medicine. At present the world is altered, we dare not say improved.

But though the qualities of astringents and bitters may differ, the effect is in some degree the same: each class strengthens the system and adds to the force and vigour of the several functions. This is, with us, a powerful motive for uniting them, and has induced our author to break the rigid laws of system, and to treat of them in succession, though divided in his classification. He explains the difference of their operation by supposing the first to act on the simple solid, the second on the inherent fluid which distinguishes the vital from the simple solid. If we were to pursue a minute enquiry into their operation, we should rather think that the first acted by increasing cohesion, and the latter by lessening irritability; for it pretty clearly follows when the irritability is lessened, that the several motions are more steady and vigorous, as the power applied is required to be more strong and active. In this view the tonics are more nearly allied to narcotics, and it leads us to remark a pointed distinction in bitters which are either warm and aromatic, or narcotic and nauseous. Where the bitter is purest it is of the latter kind, and where it is of the former sort there is probably some mixture of a different principle. As, however, astringents and tonics agree in their general effects, we think they should not be separated, except to distinguish them as effecting the same end by different means.

In enumerating particular astringents our author loses sight of his first distinction, and arranges some medicines which ought to have been inserted among the tonics. Some of the metals are evidently of this kind. If copper can be said to corrugate the fauces, though we think the sensation a very different one, the same is not true of lead or of zinc. No blackness is obtained by solutions of iron added to them, and the inflammations which they remove, and which Dr. Cullen seems inclined to believe they effect by their astringency, seem rather to show that they possess a sedative power. If we are deprived of them, we should not substitute oak bark or gum kino, we should have recourse rather to opium. Besides, when our
author

author treats of tonics, he seems to point out the cure of intermittents as the criterion of a tonic power; and alum, iron, or zinc, will produce this effect very powerfully. Arsenic, which is not mentioned in this place, is of all the most powerful, and it cannot be called from its general qualities a tonic, or an astringent. Dr. Cullen treats of acids as astringents, and they certainly seem to have this effect; but he is not willing to allow the astringent principle to be of an acid nature. If we were to enter into this dispute, it would appear that he has not considered the subject with accuracy, for his arguments only show that every acid with every earth will not form an astringent. This is very true; the acid is probably the oxaline, and it is not only phlogisticated by an oily matter, but it is saturated, or more than saturated, with earth. But this subject we have already enlarged on.

In the enumeration of particular astringents and bitters, our author is not copious he has, however, selected the most powerful. In speaking of their general virtues, he mentions the effects of bitters in relieving calculous complaints as confirmed by his own experience, though he seems to distrust their anthelmintic virtue. In general, he gives the result of his own long and extensive experience in the most clear and satisfactory manner; sometimes probably clogged with a little of his own system, and occasionally rendered doubtful by the scepticism which constantly attends the dictates of a veteran practitioner who has seen much, and of course been often disappointed. In this examination we find a long account of the Peruvian bark, which, so far as much reading, attentive observation, and no little experience enables us to judge, is the most complete, accurate, and discriminated description of its virtues that we have seen. Two observations, however, occur to us on the subject, which we are certain the professor will excuse us for mentioning. He remarks, that, in intermittents, the bark may be given early, premising only the proper medicines to clear the *primæ viæ*. This may have been perhaps the only necessary preparation in a colder climate, where intermittents are rare, and where they are seldom attended with bilious discharges. In other circumstances, repeated evacuations are necessary both from the stomach and bowels, and some time must elapse before they are sufficiently cleared to admit of bark, which is perhaps a remedy more injurious to bilious fevers, except they are putrid ones, than any other in the whole materia medica. If we want to check the secretion, it may be safely done by opium; but the bark, instead of checking the secretion seems to impede the excretion; and by imprudent management in this respect, we have really seen

it induce the complaint which is so often unjustly attributed to it, an infarcted liver; this has been only relieved by a long course of gently laxative bitters. Again, in fevers truly putrid or nervous, Dr. Cullen thinks the bark the chief and almost only remedy; yet when the *subtus tendinum* comes on, however it may be accounted for, he thinks opium the proper remedy. It certainly is so; but if he had had frequent occasion to see highly putrid fevers, he would have added the caution of not discontinuing the use of the bark, when he exhibited the opiate, or giving a full dose every night; and if he had been much in the habit of using camphor, he would have found this substance a valuable addition to it in these circumstances. What our author has, however, observed on the subject of the employment of bark in fevers, is so truly just and important that we shall beg leave to transcribe it.

‘It is perhaps possible, that a typhus of the nervous or putrid kind may be without any, or much of the inflammatory diathesis; and when at the same time the symptoms of debility and putrescency are not only considerable, but also appear early, I would allow that the bark may be employed very soon in the course of the disease. This, however, it is to be a very rare case; and my observations lead me to judge, that in the beginning of all putrid fevers, and by the testimony of authors even in the plague itself, that more or less of an inflammatory diathesis sometimes takes place. We find this to subsist commonly for the first week of our epidemic fevers; and therefore that it is seldom safe to employ the bark during that period. We commonly find that the symptoms requiring its use do not appear till the second week, and even then, till the symptoms of debility and putrescency appear pretty distinctly, the bark cannot be safely employed. When, however, very early, the symptoms of putrescency appear in any degree, it will always be allowable to employ the bark; and though no clear symptoms of putrescency appear, it will be equally proper in the second week of nervous fevers, when the symptoms of debility are anywise considerable, and when at the same time the system is very free from any appearances of an inflammatory state. To sum up the matter, we are clearly of opinion, that when fevers can be ascertained to be entirely of the putrid or nervous kind, wine or bark are the remedies to be depended on; and that, if either of these remedies have seemed to fail, it has been commonly owing to the necessary quantities not having been thrown in.

‘We must not omit this opportunity of observing that there are two cases of our epidemic fevers in which the bark is either useless or hurtful. The first is when, after much headach, a delirium arises, which is somewhat of the phrenetic kind, increased by taking wine, and is attended with a redness and inflammatory

inflammatory state of the eyes. In such cases we suspect some inflammation of the brain; and dissections have shown it to be so: and in all such I have found the bark manifestly hurtful. Another case of our fevers is, when in their advanced state with much delirium, there is much subfultus tendinum, with frequent convulsive twitchings of the limbs. In whatever manner this may be explained, I have found that opium is the proper remedy; and it is commonly necessary to give it in considerable quantity.

In the enumeration of particular bitters, we were a little surprised that he had not added the myrrh. In its effects on the system it comes very near to the chamomile flowers and columbo, which join a little stimulus to their tonic power. In its chemical properties it resembles the astringents, by striking a pretty strong black colour with chalybeates. Our author has arranged it among the stimulants; but, within the proper dose, which should not exceed fifteen grains, it does not appear to possess any stimulus, and every medicine possesses stimulant powers if given in too large a quantity.

Dr. Cullen's account of emollients is short: water and oil are the principal ones; and there is some doubt whether oil intimately combined with water, particularly in the state of milk, may not be more effectual. Water leaves the skin more dry, and oil may be useful in counteracting this rigidity. The effects of emollients are almost wholly confined to the skin and the rectum; for the stomach and bowels are only affected gradually by a fluid constantly absorbing, and incapable of penetrating through, or mixing with, the mucus. Vapour is more effectual than water; and the percussion of water dropped from a height seems to add to its effects.

Corrosives, which act also on the simple solid, are treated of shortly; for they are not varied in their effects, nor does their employment require any nice discrimination. In our more improved state of science, we should call them solvents of the animal mixt, and the pain which they occasion is only a concomitant, by no means a necessary circumstance. It may be in a great degree avoided by joining opium to the caustic, a plan which our author has not hinted at.

Of the medicines which act on the vital solid, the first class is the stimulantia. These Dr. Cullen thinks operate by their influence on the inherent fluid, whether of the nervous fibres or of the moving muscular ones: but as the same power differently directed or applied, will very frequently produce different evacuations, his system is greatly injured by separating the different evacuants from the more general stimulants. Thus guaiacum, which he considers as a stimulant, is chiefly
useful

useful as a diaphoretic, and it is useful or hurtful according to its degree, as a laxative. Our author, who depends on this remedy, is afraid of injury from the irritating power of its volatile or spirituous menstruum, and recommends it to be given triturated with the yolk of an egg mixed with water. We have tried it often in this way, and we were unable to give so much as to prove beneficial by its operation on the skin, without proving injurious by its effect on the intestines. In fact, it seems an unmanageable medicine, unless it be given in the form of the volatile tincture joined with opium, where the vehicle and the corrector may produce the chief benefit.—But to return. Dr. Cullen, in the introduction, explains the different operation of stimuli, either as they are direct and indirect, or as the effects are produced by the intervention of common sensorium, or without its influence. Their effects through the medium of the brain, are directed only to the end, without any apparent view of the means. All the effects of stimuli taken into the stomach on different organs, are produced through the medium of the brain; at least our author does not perceive with clearness any other operation.

In the classification of particular stimulants, our author traces the most common effects of the more important articles of the, generally inefficient, botanical order, the verticillatæ. The lavender and the mints are the most important medicines which it affords, and their virtues would not require many lines. The umbellatæ which are stimulant, are of more importance; the cummin, the coriander, and the carui, are of frequent use. The filiquosæ are still more frequently employed, and they are generally very pure and simple stimulants.

‘A practice so far as I can learn, first begun in this city about fifty years ago, has been since very frequent. It consists in giving the mustard-seed entire and unbruised, to the quantity of half an ounce, or as much as an ordinary table-spoon will contain. This does not prove heating in the stomach, but stimulates the intestinal canal, and commonly proves laxative, or at least supports the usual daily excretion. It commonly also increases the secretion of urine; but in this I have found it frequently to fail. In giving it twice a day as our common practice is, I have not found it to stimulate the system or heat the body; but it must certainly have that effect if it answers in the Swedish practice, by giving it four or five times a day to prevent the recurrence of intermittent fevers.’

If mustard is ever diuretic and expectorant, the effects must be attributed to their stimulant power, by which nature is for a time roused to do her own business. The cases, where it succeeds

succeeds best, give a sufficient proof of this position. The alliaceæ is the next class, and if steadily pursued, we are convinced would furnish very active medicines. The following paragraph is a proper supplement to the practice just now quoted respecting mustard.

Garlic, as a medicine, is employed in different forms. Sometimes the cloves dipped in oil are swallowed entire; and in this way a number of cloves may be taken at the same time, without proving warm on the stomach, though manifestly acting on the system as diuretic and otherwise. This I take to be the administration of Bergius in the cure of intermittents mentioned above. For persons who cannot swallow the entire cloves, they are cut down without bruising into small pieces; and in this way a considerable quantity if swallowed without being chewed, may be taken at once, and without proving very warm in the stomach, although it be found to be an active medicine. When the garlic cannot in any of these ways be taken in a somewhat entire state, it is to be bruised; and with powders coinciding with the intention of the garlic, the whole is made into pills; but it is not a very proper formula for long keeping, as the active parts of the garlic are readily dissipated by drying. These active parts are more certainly preserved by infusing the bruised garlic into warm water, and after a due infusion making the liquor into a syrup or oxymel in the manner of the London Dispensatory. In this form the garlic is considerably powerful; but cannot be taken in any very considerable quantity without irritating the fauces and even the stomach: and in any quantity, in which I could introduce those forms of the medicine, I have been often disappointed of its diuretic effects.

The coniferæ produce the turpentine, a medicine of considerable efficacy as a stimulant and a diuretic; but Dr. Cullen does not depend on its diuretic powers so much as we think they deserve. We forget the author from whom we learned to give it in honey; we have found, however, this mode of exhibiting it very convenient, and a medium by which a much larger dose can be retained in the stomach than in any other vehicle. The juniper is more agreeable, though in Dr. Cullen's opinion not more powerful. The balsam Copaibæ and Peruvianum seem, from our author's account, to be similar medicines, but the latter we have found a more agreeable stimulant, a more powerful tonic, and a safer expectorant. To many stomachs it is, however, disagreeable. To the resinosa the myrrh is referred, we think improperly; the guaiacum, which we have already mentioned; and the sarsaparilla, which we must think, with Dr. Cullen, is very generally useless. The accounts of the aromata contain nothing very new or striking.

The soporific quality of nutmeg is confirmed by an instance which occurred to Dr. Cullen; and pepper, he thinks, in the stomach proves a general stimulus. With some other authors we have not found this to be the case, and in the instances adduced in this volume, we suspect that some idiosyncrasy produced the peculiar effect: the heat of common pepper and even of Kayan, seems in general, to be exerted chiefly on the fauces. The last order, the acria, contain the arum and the mezereon, which our author commends rather on the authority of others' experience than his own.

The class of sedatives is divided into two orders, the narcotics and the refrigerants. Of the general observations, we can make no analysis: the author labours in an obscure path, and we fear has added to the obscurity. We can only see with distinctness that he considers narcotics to act on the inherent fluid, and that sleep and waking are alternate states which different medicines or impressions may assist or prevent.

The most important medicine of the first order is opium, and it is foremost in our author's ranks. He speaks of it in general, and of its first effects as well as of its more particular use. That it is a sedative every one will be ready to allow, though it is very certain that it seems to possess stimulant powers, and our author is unwilling to admit any combination of a different principle, but to attribute its stimulant effect to the reaction of the system. It certainly seems to have a cordial and exhilarating power, or at least it induces a calmness and serenity which are mistaken for it. Much of this, however, when we have taken it for the sake of experiment, seems owing to the suppression of irritation or painful sensations; and we have never found that in the healthy or diseased state it possessed a power purely or primarily stimulant. In every instance of phlogistic diathesis, the criterion by which Dr. Cullen measures, with strict justice and propriety, its use or abuse, it is hurtful. Yet if we can perceive any thing with clearness, the injury is occasioned by the suppression of those evacuations by which the diathesis must be relieved. If it produces sweating it relieves rheumatism; if it does not check expectoration it is of service in peripneumony; and if stools are procured, it will cure ileus. But whether this is the true solution or otherwise, the medicine is of precarious advantage, or often hurtful in inflammatory states; and though by supporting the evacuations we lessen the injury, we do not in all instances remove it. Dr. Cullen next mentions its use in particular diseases, and asserts what we *know* to be true, that he was the first person who freely and largely employed

employed opium in fevers under certain restrictions. He employed it in that irritation which produces subfultus tendinum and convulsions: to this state he thinks it still applicable, though by no means to the inflammatory state of the brain which sometimes occurs at the end of putrid fevers. This is a distinction which we cannot follow at the bed-side, for the irritation seems owing, in every instance, to some degree of inflammation; and we have found opium, under proper management, applicable to every degree of it. We have seldom employed it, except premising a laxative, or in great debility, a glyster, and at the same time taking off inflammatory tension by a blister near the head: we have also usually added camphor. What we said in our review of Dr. Wall's work, we have since confirmed by practice in other epidemics where the plan has succeeded, but not equally well in all. It has taught us, however, that apparent symptoms of debility are often owing to this congestion, we would not call it inflammation in the head.

In peripneumony, Dr. Cullen would allow opium to check the constant irritation to cough, which the thin acrid humour occasions; to give ease to the lungs and allow the matter to thicken by a short stagnation. This effect is the more common one of opium in old coughs: urged by necessity, as we have formerly explained, we have occasionally used it, but always with inconveniencè, and the judicious practitioner must balance the advantages and disadvantages. In colic, perhaps Dr. Cullen is too much afraid of its constipating power: if the pain is eased, the tendency to mortification is checked, though stools are not the immediate consequence. In other points, our author's account of opium is clear, masterly, and decisive. In these, we presume not to say that the veteran professor errs: practitioners, however, in different situations may perceive effects in different lights, or the results of experience may really vary. If our observations appear at first sight too free, the only apology that we can offer is, that we labour in the cause of science, and endeavour to promote it. Dr. Cullen's name and authority are of the greatest weight with us, but it is of consequence to prevent weight and authority from producing implicit confidence.

The narcotics which follow opium are, the cicuta, of which our author gives a very candid and satisfactory account, allowing it some virtues as an anodyne, admitting it to be a medicine capable of correcting the destructive tendency of cancer, of meliorating the discharge, though scarcely in any instance effecting a cure: we can truly confirm every part of this verdict. The belladonna, our author thinks, has sometimes

times cured cancers and schirri, though it has often failed. The henbane is treated also favourably, as it ought to be; and the effects of the nicotiana are very faithfully described. Dr. Cullen has not been able to succeed with it in dropfies. The stramonium, from the quotations which he produces, seems to be useless in the diseases for which it has been employed. The laurocerasus is a poison which is often fatal, without producing sleep, and seems to furnish an instance of a power of acting on the vital functions without any effect on the animal, while the poison of the mad dog seems to act most powerfully on the animal functions. These extremes undoubtedly furnish some grounds for a distinction, but it is a distinction of little use, and we fear, if pursued, it will not be found so pointed as Dr. Cullen has supposed it to be. The first effect of the poison of the mad dog seems to be that of producing melancholy, and a generally increased sensibility, while the laurocerasus has occasionally brought on stupor and an insensibility in the animal functions. The bitter almonds and the bitter of black cherries are next examined; with the former Bergius cured intermittents, but they are not on this account tonics.—We are sorry that our account of this interesting volume must be deferred, but it would exceed our limits to examine the remainder, even of the sedatives, in this article.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Voyage du jeune Anacharsis en Grèce, dans le Milieu du quatrième Siècle avant l'Ère vulgaire.

The Journey of the younger Anacharsis to Greece, in the Middle of the fourth Century before the Christian Æra. 8vo. Seven Volumes, with one Volume 4to. of Maps, Plans, Views, and Medals of Greece, 45 livres, 1l. 17s. 6d. or three Volumes 4to. including the Plates, 60 livres, 2l. 10s. Debure, Paris.

WHEN Anacharsis was in Greece, he was asked if they had musical instruments in Scythia; and he replied with an uncomplaisant severity—No—nor have we any wine. This little anecdote, which history, tradition, or table-talk has preserved, perhaps furnished our author, the abbé Barthelemi, with his plan. He supposes that Anacharsis came 'into Greece some years before the birth of Alexander; and that from Athens, his ordinary residence, he made many excursions to the neighbouring provinces, observing the manners and customs of the people, assisting at their festivals, studying the nature of their governments, occasionally employing his leisure-hours in enquiries into the progress of genius, or in conversation with the great men of that period. When he saw Greece subjected to Philip, the father of Alexander, he returned to Scythia, arranged

ranged his remarks, and, not to be impeded in his narration, explains what had passed in Greece before he quitted Scythia, in his Introduction.

The anecdote which we have recorded is not quite in unison with the supposition of the abbé, for what just decisions or elegant remarks could be expected from a churlish Scythian, who could place one of the most exquisite of sciences on a level with the grossest debaucheries, or consider music as only an assistant to nocturnal orgies. But as a name was only wanting, and as Lucian had furnished the name, it may be considered as a sufficient apology. If it be asked why the abbé wrote travels rather than a history, he has himself given the answer—that action is inseparable from travels, and they afford some details forbidden to the historian. These details are the most curious and instructive parts of the work; and without them it is difficult to be well acquainted with the laws, the religion, the manners, the customs, and the general spirit of a great nation, as well as its progress in arts and sciences. The traveller is, therefore, the animated historian, who furnishes the picture that has passed before his eyes; and if he performs his office well, his readers accompany him, feel the same impressions, and, in turn, experience the delight and disgust which he has felt.

The epoch which he has chosen, one of the most interesting that the history of nations furnishes, may be regarded in two points of view. In that of letters and arts, it combines the age of Pericles with that of Alexander. In the second it is not less remarkable: Anacharsis was a witness of the revolution which changed the appearance of Greece, and soon afterwards overturned the empire of Persia. The 1250 years elapsed from the time of Cecrops to the supposed æra of Anacharsis, is divided into two intervals: the first reaches to the commencement of the Olympiads, the second to the capture of Athens by the Lacedæmonians.

The first part of this Introduction, where facts and fables are equally mixed, as equally subservient to the author's design, is full of just and animated reflections: these give to the heroic ages an interesting appearance, which the author seems to fear they might lose from the lapse of time. But a more sober enquirer, like Mr. Mitford, will rather find it necessary to detract from the gloss which early prepossessions and classical fiction have put on. Indeed we felt our author's eulogium on Homer, whether his existence be placed among the facts or fables, because the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* will always speak to the heart. The abbé's enthusiasm and admiration no one can blame in this concluding part of his first section.

The history of the Athenians commences, strictly speaking, about 150 years after the first Olympiad. We see, in well-distinguished intervals, the origin, the progress, and the fall of this empire. Anacharsis calls the first, the age of Solon, the æra of legislation; the second, the age of Themistocles and Aristides, the

the æra of glory ; the last, that of Pericles, of luxury and the arts. These three ages are described in a few pages, without omitting any thing very essential ; and he explains their spirit as well as the principal events by which they are distinguished.

The general system of the legislation of Solon, his civil and criminal laws, which the Athenians considered as oracles, and the rest of the world as models, are particularly examined. He quotes some of his dispositions relative to moral conduct and moral principles, which he properly considered as the great foundation of his laws : he might have added, of every legislative code ; for without them laws are variable and unstable, without energy and without effect.

The second section contains the history of the æra of Themistocles and Aristides. He begins with one of those general reflections confirmed by the experience of every age. It is with pain (says he) ' that I am obliged to write of war. It should be sufficient to observe, that wars begin by the ambition of princes, and finish by the miseries of the people ; *but the example of one nation which prefers death to slavery, is too important and too instructive to be passed in silence.*' It is a Frenchman who speaks, and at Paris that the sentence is printed. The æra which the abbé treats of is full of great actions ; yet the general received no recompence, no distinction : he had his part of the common glory as of the common danger, and like the other citizens had only exposed his honour and his life. Miltiades, after the battle of Marathon, solicited the honour of a crown. ' If, says a citizen, Miltiades, you had alone checked the progress of the barbarians, you alone should have had a crown.' Among many important remarks which this section contains, there is one remarkable observation, which is, that if the establishment of commerce and a marine proved the salvation of Athens, it became soon the instrument of its ambition and its destruction. The author mentions two or three circumstances, which show with what rapidity the principles of law and of equity decayed in the nation ; and these traits, or similar ones, will always be found in similar situations.

The third section relates to the history of the age of Pericles. This man, born to command others, in whatever form of government chance had placed him ; this celebrated demagogue, whose eloquence was so extraordinary, that a Greek poet supposed the goddess of persuasion to have resided on his lips, was indebted to his talents for the honour of being long the chief of a powerful republic and for the dangerous advantage of enjoying too extensive power in it for a single individual. But these talents were employed for the advantage of his country, and it is surprising that they were so seldom misdirected, since unlimited sway leads so readily to injustice and to crimes. It is not for exciting or rather hastening the Peloponnesian war, that this able politician is blameworthy, for the forces, the ambition, and the respective circumstances of Athens and Sparta, rendered it necessary

necessary and inevitable; but for his having corrupted the manners of his fellow-citizens, for having softened their ferocity by an uninterrupted succession of feasts and of games. Yet this was the tax of greatness in a venal state: if he had not entertained the populace he could not have been their leader; if he had not been supreme in prodigal expences, he could not have been the general of the war. He indeed extended the dominions of the republic, but he gave authority to its increasing licentiousness, which continued long after his death, till the moment of its ruin. Corrupted morals are not restored but by the loss of liberty, which brings that poverty inconsistent with softness, and inseparable from abstemiousness, if not that rigid principle of a healthy mind, which is properly styled virtue. The philosopher's answer to this problem was not improper! You can only, says he, restore the virtue of a nation, as Medea restored the youth of Æson, by reducing him to his first principles.

Our author not only collects from historians the most curious facts, and which, from their importance, deserve the principal attention, but he has the art of connecting with them the reflections of historians, especially when these reflections, even if they are unconnected, form an important consequence. Such is the judicious observation of Thucydides, that war modifies the manners of the people, and renders them more acrimonious in proportion to the misfortunes which they experience. That of Peloponnesus was long, and the Athenians met with so many misfortunes, that their character was greatly changed. But what is more remarkable in the course of this fatal war, there was 'such a change of principles and ideas, that the most common words obtained a different acceptation; the man who trusted his neighbour was a dupe, duplicity was address, prudence and moderation became weakness and cowardice, while traits of boldness and of violence passed for the sallies of an impetuous mind and an ardent zeal for the common cause.' The abbé makes, on this subject, a remark, which not only proves but extends a very ingenious and just idea of some philosophers. In rising, says he, to the causes of great events, they have thought that every age carries in its womb that which is to follow. This bold metaphor covers an important truth, which is particularly confirmed by the history of Athens. The age of laws and of virtue prepared that of bravery and glory: the last produced the æra of conquests and of luxury, which ended in the destruction of the republic.

But what, in the chain of necessary causes and effects, comforts in some degree the mind harrassed by the unfortunate events of the war of Peloponnesus, is that in this period many men of great abilities in every department flourished. 'While the different nations of Greece were threatened with the loss of empire by sea and land, a peaceable class of citizens laboured silently to secure to it the empire of genius. The sciences were daily illustrated by new discoveries, and the arts by new improvements.

Greece owed these advantages, in part, to the influence of philosophy.'

Our author afterwards observes, that in rising from Pericles to Thales, the most ancient of the Grecian philosophers, the human mind seems to have acquired more information in two hundred years, than in all the ages which preceded. He examines the general and particular causes, and his remarks deserve attention. He has already seen, on the whole, that the Grecians (and as much may be said of many other nations) have paid more attention to those talents which were subservient to their pleasure, than to those which contributed to their instruction; that, except in the department of poetry, literature, though cultivated early and with more success than the arts, has received less encouragement. 'They have shown, adds he, some esteem for eloquence and for history, because the first is necessary to the discussion of their interests, and the second to their vanity; but the other branches of literature owe their increase rather to the force of the soil than to the protection of their government. In many villages there are schools for combatants supported at the public expence, but no where permanent establishments for the exercise of the mind. It is only after some time that the study of arithmetic and geometry made a part of education, and that they began to be no longer startled with the opinions of philosophy. Under Pericles, philosophical enquiries were severely forbidden by the Athenians; and while the soothsayers were sometimes entertained with distinction in the prytaneum, the philosophers scarcely dared to trust their opinions to faithful disciples. They were not better received among other nations: every where the objects of hatred and contempt, they escaped from the fury of fanaticism by holding truth a captive, and from that of covetousness, by a voluntary poverty. With a more extensive toleration, at this time, they are watched so closely, that on the least excess philosophy would be attacked in the same manner as formerly.' It is not necessary to generalize these reflections, or to apply some parts of them. There are in the history of every nation, as in that of nature, facts which all the world cannot perceive in a true point of view, and in all their connections. These facts also escape authors, since the true spirit of observation is not more common among philosophers than the spirit of philosophy among historians: consequently books of philosophy which teach something useful, and books of history which lead men to think, are always uncommon. Tacitus and Gibbon are perhaps the only historians who conceal from all but the attentive reader, the depth of their researches and the consequences of their reflections. The abbé does not always deserve this praise: he is often more brilliant than solid; and occasionally loses the substance of a reflection, in pursuit of something ingenious to add to it. Above all, he looks at these petty republics with too much astonishment; and, struck with their glare, he is afraid to examine the substance,

or to see that, from the first moment of their existence, they carried with them, expanded and ripened, the seeds of their destruction. We will resume the subject, for we have examined only the Introduction, and in some future Number give an account of the journey of the Scythian philosopher.

The plans, the views, and the maps, are executed with great spirit and accuracy by M. Barbier, a young man of very promising talents; and to the charts many useful tables are added. The first represents the principal epochs of the Grecian history, from the foundation of the kingdom of Argos to the reign of Alexander. The second contains the names of those who distinguished themselves in letters and in arts, from about the time of the taking of Troy to the same æra, with the names in an alphabetical order. The following tables show the relation of the Roman measures with the French, as well as the valuation of the money of Athens. In the thirteenth table are all the authors quoted in the work, with the editions employed; and the last contains a general view of the contents and of remarkable facts.

Traité Élémentaire de Chimie. Par M. Lavoisier, de l'Académie des Sciences, &c. 2 Tom. 8vo. 10s. bound. Cuchet, Paris.

WE take the earliest opportunity of announcing and giving some account of a work, by an author whose heresies have alarmed, but whose abilities and zeal have astonished and instructed the world. It has been received at Paris with the most flattering regards, and it deserves very particular attention. In our review of it we shall chiefly point out what is new, particularly those novelties where the author, perceiving perhaps the error of his ways, again returns within the pale of former systems.

The first chapter is on the formation of aeriform fluids, by the addition of the matter of heat; but though it affords a very proper view of the question, with the most important facts, yet it adds nothing to what others have observed. The second, third, and fourth chapters, contain some observations on the atmosphere, which he says consists of twenty-seven parts of pure air, and seventy-three of mephitic, or phlogisticated air: of course he excludes fixed air, which he formerly thought amounted to about one part in an hundred. If it be not an ingredient in the atmosphere, it is very often formed accidentally in it; and the air in towns can seldom be analysed without affording some, and frequently variable proportions of it. The fifth chapter, on the decomposition of oxygenous gas, or pure air by sulphur, &c. with the consequent formation of acids, contains only our author's usual system. The sixth chapter is on the nomenclature of acids, and particularly of those drawn from saltpetre and sea-salt. One passage deserves to be transcribed. 'The azote (phlogisticated air) is, says he, p. 78, the radical nitric; or the nitrous acid is the true azotic acid. It is evi-

dent then, that to be consistent we ought to adopt one or other of these terms. But it has appeared to us difficult to change the names of nitre and salpêtre, generally adopted in arts, in social intercourse, and in chemistry.' We wish the same sentiments had occurred to the authors of the New Nomenclature.

The seventh chapter, on the decomposition of pure air, and the formation of metallic oxydes, furnishes a few novelties. The term oxyde, which was at first limited to metallic calces, is since extended to many other bodies. 'We have no hesitation, says he, page 84, to employ it to express the first degree of oxygenation of every substance; that degree, which without making them acids, brings them near to a saline state. We shall call therefore sulphur melted, at the moment of combustion, oxyde of sulphur; and oxyde of phosphorus is the yellow substance left after the phosphorus has burned. We shall call the nitrous gas, which is the first degree of the oxygenation of the azote, (phlogisticated air) oxyde of azote. The vegetable kingdom and the animal kingdom will, in the same way, have their peculiar azotes.'—These are, we suppose, sugar, starch, blood, lymph, &c. Indeed, on the phlogistic system, terms are greatly wanted to express those substances whose acidity is covered by phlogiston, or which are again altered by the addition of pure air. We call the first sulphurs, a term liable to error, and at best inadequate: dephlogisticated, particularly in combinations, as the corrosive sublimate, &c. would be equally improper for the others. In speaking of those salts collectively we must now employ a periphrasis.

The eighth chapter is on the radical principle of water, and its decomposition by charcoal and fire: the ninth on the quantity of heat disengaged in different species of combustion. M. Wilke, we find, professor at Stockholm, has endeavoured to calculate the degree of heat in the same manner as Mess. Lavoisier and de la Place, by the quantity of ice which the heated body melts. The instrument employed is termed the calorimeter. The tenth chapter, on the combination of combustible substances with each other, treats of the union of different metals, as well as of combinations of sulphur, phosphorus, and charcoal, with the same metals. 'The hydrogen, says he, (inflammable air) p. 118, is also capable of combining with a great number of combustible bodies. In the state of gas it dissolves coal, sulphur, phosphorus, and many metals. It is found in coal, in oils, and in every vegetable and animal substance.'

'It is a question, he adds, worth examining, whether the hydrogen is capable of combining with sulphur, phosphorus, and even with metals in a concrete state. No argument, a priori, contradicts the possibility or impossibility of this union; but no direct experiment proves it. In iron and zinc we have most reason to suspect the combination; but, at the same time, these

these metals have the property of decomposing water. *It is not easy to be certain if the small portions of hydrogenous gas, which are obtained in some experiments on these metals, were really combined with them, or if they come from the decomposition of water.* However that may be, we are at least sure that the hydrogen is combined in very small quantities.' We find in this passage many new confessions, particularly the existence of inflammable air in bodies which we style phlogistic: even the decomposition of water is not rested on in every experiment with the former confidence.

The eleventh chapter is entitled, Considerations on Oxydes and Acids, with different Bases, and on the Decomposition of Vegetable and Animal Matters. Combustible bodies, as they are capable of uniting with each other, will form acids when joined with pure air; and these are what M. Lavoisier styles acids with different bases. 'The vegetable oxydes with two bases are sugar (composed, as he afterwards tells us, of sixty-four parts of pure air, twenty-eight of coal, and eight of inflammable air, the different species of gum, united under the term mucous bodies, and starch. These three substances have for their base inflammable air and coal oxygenated by pure air. From oxydes they may be reduced to acids by an additional quantity of pure air; and, according to the degree of oxygenation and the proportion of hydrogen (inflammable air) and coal the different vegetable acids are formed.' He then gives specimens of the different names of acids on this principle, which are, if possible, more harsh and uncouth than any other terms in the New Nomenclature; yet he has employed in his work the old terms, changing only the terminations according as the acids are phlogisticated, or otherwise. Though these acids, he observes, are principally and almost wholly composed of hydrogen, coal, and oxygen, yet they contain, properly speaking, neither water, fixed air, nor oil, but only the principles proper to form these different bodies. The force of attraction, which the ingredients of these acids exert, keeps them in a state of equilibrium, which can only exist in the temperature in which we live. If they are heated above the degree of boiling water the equilibrium is broken. The pure and inflammable air unite to form water; a portion of the coal joins the inflammable air, to produce oil, and the pure air with the coal forms fixed air. There is always a surplus of coal, which remains free. The great and most essential variations in our author's opinions from the common ones, consist in denying that fixed air is contained in oils; in continuing to style coal the basis of fixed air, though it is highly probable that coal is a compound of a very different nature; in denying that water is contained in sugar and vegetable acids, or that oil is contained in the last.

The twelfth chapter is a continuation of the second part of the preceding, viz. on the decomposition of animal and veget-

able substances by fire. The three following are on the decomposition of vegetable oxydes, by the vinous fermentation, the acetous, or the putrid. 'The effects of the vinous fermentation, says our author, are to separate into two portions the sugar, which is an oxyde; to oxygenate the one at the expence of the other, in order to form fixed air, and, consequently, to deprive the other of its pure air, to form a combustible substance, which is an alcohol; so that if it was possible to combine again the alcohol and acid, sugar would be again formed. But, added to this, the hydrogen and the coal are not in a state of oil in the alcohol: they are combined with a portion of oxygen, which renders them miscible with water. I had advanced, adds he, that water was decomposed in the vinous fermentation. I supposed then that water already formed existed in the sugar: I am now persuaded that it contains only the ingredients proper to form it. It will be obvious that I have suffered a little in giving up my first system. In the putrid fermentation, the whole of the hydrogen is dissipated in inflammable air, while the pure air and the coal, uniting to the matter of the heat, escape in the form of fixed air. But when there is some phlogisticated air in these substances, it greatly favours the putrefaction; and, when united with the hydrogen, forms volatile alkali, or ammonia.'

The acetous fermentation can only take place when atmospheric air is joined, which furnishes the pure air. 'We see from hence that it is only necessary to add hydrogen to the coaly acid (fixed air), to constitute the acetous acid, or to speak more accurately, to transform it into any other vegetable acid, according to the degree of dephlogistication; and that it is only necessary to take away the hydrogen from vegetable acids to change them into fixed air.' We wish our author had added some facts in support of this system; but it certainly comes near to the truth.

The sixteenth chapter is on the formation of neutral salts, and of the different bases which enter into their composition. Acids he calls '*salifiants*,' and the alkali or earth, '*salifiables*.' This view of the acids and alkalis does not permit him, he thinks, to consider either as salts; for he confines this term 'to the composition formed by a reunion of a simple oxygenated substance with any base.' 'Analogy,' he observes, and we think something more than analogy, 'might lead us to believe that phlogisticated air is one of the constituent principles of alkali in general;' and there is a proof of it, in M. Lavoisier's opinion, in volatile alkali.

The subject is pursued in the seventeenth chapter. All the acids, comprehending the metallic acids, if all these can be reduced to the state of an acid, are forty-eight; but, in this enumeration, the different states of the acid, as phlogisticated, or dephlogisticated, are supposed to form different bodies. There are, therefore, ten mineral acids, thirteen vegetable, six animal, the

the fluor and boracic acids, and seventeen metallic ones. The salifiable bases are twenty-four, viz. three alkalis, four earths, seventeen metals: supposing each acid to be united to each base, we shall have 1152 neutrals.

The number of neutral salts would be still more considerable, if, in the enumeration, salts with two or three bases were admitted. There may be other salts formed with an excess of acid; the octoedral alum, for instance, is different from the cubical; and, in the former, there is an excess of acid, while in the latter the alkali is only saturated. There may be an excess also of the bases; and many authors will add to the number of acids: consequently, the number of neutrals will be greatly increased. Metals, he observes, only become bases, as they contain a portion of oxygen; this may be also the case with the four earths; and it is possible that these may be at last metallic calces; but this, he properly adds, is only conjecture. The second part, on neutral salts, presents nothing very new.

The simple bodies, which in the New Nomenclature amounted to fifty-five, are now reduced to thirty-three; and the others are the three alkalis, with the nineteen vegetable and animal acids. Other substances may, at last, be also found to be compounds. In speaking of the muriatic acid, for instance, he observes, that 'M. Berthollet had suspected its radical to be of a metallic nature; but since it appears that the muriatic acid is formed every day in inhabited places, by the combination of miasmata and aeriform fluids, we must suppose that a metallic gas exists in the atmosphere, which is not indeed impossible, yet it should not be admitted without proof.'

Many of these assertions are gratuitous, and of the remaining bodies, reputed to be simple ones, some authors have pointed out the combination, but without sufficient accuracy. We are, however, making a more hasty progress towards a more perfect knowledge of many bodies than in any former æra. It will be better to wait with patience than again to retread the steps which we have trodden from haste and misapprehension. Our author's bold suggestions and lively imagination perhaps have led him occasionally from the right path; but this Elementary Essay, like all his former works, shows that he possesses a daring and an original genius, much information, and unwearied industry.

Elementi di Mineralogia, &c.

Analogical and systematical Elements of Mineralogy, by Giovanni Serafino Volta. Doctor in Theology, Canon, &c. &c. Ottavo. Rome.

THE very learned and judicious preface, which our author has prefixed to his work, would alone afford a general idea of these Elements; but they are new and ingenious, if not always accurate; and, though we cannot recommend our au-

thor's system without some reserve, yet it deserves attention, not only from its real merit, but from the influence it has over other works: an instance of this kind occurs in the Foreign Intelligence of the present Number. Our author is yet young in this department of natural history, and his countrymen have hitherto considered the study of minerals with indifferent and careless eyes. Scopoli's works in mineralogy were not received with eagerness, so that he must reform, if possible, the whole nation. It was necessary to take this view of the question to explain the introduction, in which the author establishes, for the sake of the student, the foundation of the elements of mineralogy and its different parts, particularly so far as they regard different systems, and the progressive steps of the science. The chemical, or rather the analytical system, is his chief object; and the theory of dissolvents, of bases, and the phenomena of elective attractions are particularly considered. He then explains an hypothesis which he has adopted respecting the generation of metals, and compares, with some ingenuity, crystallization to organization, by establishing the laws which seem to be analogous as they chiefly occur in chemical processes. He then explains the principal obstacles which prevent the regularity of this operation, to which he attributes the appearance of all the metals which depart from their original figure, or, in other words, which are not crystallised. This system is not very different from that which we have lately had occasion to explain respecting the growth of minerals, in our review of Dr. Denman's work.

The action of dissolvents on their bases, being the principle of crystallization, and in general of every chemical solution, is the foundation on which the author, in imitation, we suppose, of M. Morveau, establishes the plan of his analytical system. After having endeavoured to prove, in his introduction, that all the dissolvents of the mineral kingdom are reduced to the general designations of acid and phlogiston, he proposes to establish two classes of minerals, the mineral acids of Bergman, whose proper character is incombustibility, and phlogisticated substances (the phlogiston of Stahl), which are all, more or less, inflammable. He applies to these two classes the analytical systems of modern mineralogists, and dividing each of these systems into two orders, he finds them apply exactly to their four classes. Under each of these classes he arranges families, characterised by the specific quantity of the bases; and these families he divides into genera, distinguished by the different modification of the dissolvents, the quality of the figures, the proportion of the mixtures, &c. This system is terminated by an appendix on petrifications, of which M. Volta explains the formation, and teaches us how to imitate them by art.

To give some idea of the original features of this elementary work, we shall enlarge a little on some parts of our author's system. The class of salts is the subject of the sixty-first section;

tion; and M. Volta supposes that there is a particular acid in water, which corresponds to what the ancients called the petrifying juice. In the sixty-sixth section he confirms by his own observations the discovery of the natural mineral alkali, made by the chevalier Lorgna, of which he promises the description and the analysis: in the same paragraph he asserts, that there is certainly some ammoniacal nitre among the mineral salts. The earths he divides into legitimate and illegitimate, or more properly, primitive and secondary; and he adds some new characters to distinguish the argillaceous and calcareous earths. The history of the secondary earths, and of bitumens, is treated very scientifically and accurately: it is by much the best part of the work. The part which relates to metals is disfigured a little by some of our author's peculiar opinions respecting their bases; but the different methods of working mines, the uses of minerals in medicine, œconomy, and arts, form a very useful portion of these elements. On the whole, we think our author would have done better if he had not adopted the chemical system in all its rigour, and rendered it still more unpalatable, by mixing with it his own peculiar sentiments, opinions not confirmed by experience, and which, perhaps, many will consider as fanciful and visionary. But among the various hypotheses there is much ingenious theory, and, among some fancies, many valuable and well authenticated facts.

Lettres Americaines, dans lesquelles on examine l'Origine, &c. des anciens Habitans de l'Amerique, pour servir de Suite aux Memoires de D. Ulloa. Par M. le Comte de Carli, President emerite du Conseil supreme d'Economie Publique, &c. 2 Toms. 8vo. Bruffon, Paris.

IT is not now our object to enquire how far the old world has been benefited by the discovery of a new continent, or to draw the line between the advantages and disadvantages which have been derived from the voyages of Columbus and those who followed his steps. It has given a full scope to the modern refiners, who contend that agriculture is the only rational employment; and to the modern philosophers, who endeavour to persuade us that man, in a state of nature, without civilization, and almost without society, is in his most perfect condition. But, though the former might enjoy the full perfection of reason, and the latter of humanity, in the savannahs and forests of the American continent, we have not heard that any have trusted so far to their theories, as to put them to the test of experience. The first discoverers of America were too eager for gold, to be able to study the manners of men in this secluded state, and not sufficiently abstracted to philosophise on human nature, its wants, its exertions, and its resources. They despised the native Americans: their weakness and their stupidity were so great, that they doubted if they ought to be admitted in the class

class of men ; and this contempt can furnish the only excuse, though perhaps an insufficient one, for the conduct of the Spaniards. Even after two centuries, we had only the fallacious and contradictory accounts of the first discoverers, till some more able and philosophical enquirers digested and compared the different accounts of the conquerors. These compilers were, however, Spaniards ; tinged with the early prejudices of their country, disseminated by the voyagers ; and it was from other nations that the world first received more probable and certain accounts of the customs, manners, and nature of the Americans, as well as the degree of civilization which they had attained previous to the conquest.

M. Paw's philosophical researches respecting the Americans formed an agreeable entertainment for the indolent and the fashionable: of course it was a work long in repute ; but the philosopher was disgusted with his paradoxes, the haughtiness of his manner, and the misapplication of the little knowledge he possessed on the subject. We have often glanced at this author and his work ; and perhaps, if he had confined his abuse to some of the islands, and a few of the most savage tribes, it might only have been called an exaggerated picture of a rank and luxuriant soil, and of human misery. In the new world, the beauty and fertility of the earth are the work of man. Nature had produced vast forests ; but they were impenetrable from the exuberance of vegetation ; large bodies of water, which, unconfined by banks, did not flow in useful rivers, or expand in pleasing lakes : they formed only vast and extensive marshes. The earth was covered with thick shrubs, with wild herbs and plants, as well as a prodigious number of noxious reptiles ; while the air was obscured with clouds of insects. From want of a free circulation of air, and a cheering sun, the Spaniards were soon attacked with violent and unknown diseases : they returned, at least those who lived to return, fallow, livid, weak, and emaciated. The inhabitants were rather active than strong ; stupid, indolent, and insensible. Yet this was only a picture of a portion of America and some of the inhabitants. Many parts deserve a very different character, and two civilised nations might have claimed an exception. Paw, however, for a long time kept possession of the opinions of the world ; for Pernetty, who opposed him, did not declaim with the same spirit and the same vehemence : he was not therefore so much attended to, by those who were unable to judge or to decide.

Dr. Robertson, in his History of America, collected from the best sources ; weighed the several assertions of authors with a scrupulous severity ; and compiled an account of America and its inhabitants, which was at once clear, judicious, and accurate. He steers equally clear of the invectives of Paw, and of the hyperbolical commendations of Solis and Garcilasso. Our present author, the count de Carli, after Paw, has been tried, convicted, and condemned ; from a violent zeal (seemingly political)

litical) for the honour of America, engages in the combat. The objects of his crusade appear to be the nations of Mexico and Peru; and the first volume is almost exclusively designed to show, that, when they were discovered by the Spaniards, they were not less civilised than their conquerors. Truth, as may be supposed, lies between.

The count does not confine himself by methodical rules. He expands his doctrine in a vague manner through his letters, sometimes filling his page with a crowd of quotations, sometimes without adducing the support of any author, and seeming to have no authority but his own. It is impossible to follow so irregular a course: we shall therefore reduce it to a few distinct points; these on one side will show the progress which the Peruvians and Mexicans had made in civilization; and, on the other, the state of imperfection in which society seems to have been. To begin then with the Mexicans.

Cortes and his followers were eye-witnesses of their state; and their testimony deserves great attention: yet perhaps somewhat may be detracted from it. They could describe what they saw; but culture, manners, and civilization were subjects with which they were little conversant; and comparing the Mexicans with the stupid islanders whom they had left, the character of the former would necessarily arise above the proper standard. To enhance also the merit of their conquest, they might raise the character of the people; and, when we find a mud-walled hut, and a brutal savage on the coast of Guinea complimented with the terms of court and king, we shall soon see that these words are applied only to the chief and his habitation, whatever they may be. Solis, who wrote an epic poem rather than a history, seems to have taken these terms for his text, and has amplified and expanded them with great luxuriance of imagination in his sermon. The right of property was undoubtedly well known in Mexico in all its extent; but subject to some varieties, for the property of land and its produce were vested in a community; and an individual had no exclusive right to any part of it. The number and size of the cities, though somewhat exaggerated, are favourable to the arguments of the count; the separation of different professions, is no equivocal mark of a progress in civilization. The distinction of ranks, and the subordination so rigorously established in Mexico, show that society had assumed a form: the people were the slaves of the nobles, and their political constitution resembled our feudal government. The pride and tyranny of the nobles, and the homage paid to the king, partook of oriental despotism. The taxes were neither arbitrary nor unequal: they were fixed according to invariable rules, and every one knew what portion of the public burthen he ought to bear. The taxes were paid in kind, and those who had no goods to barter, paid them by labour of different sorts.

Different objects of interior policy show that the security and happiness

happiness of the citizens was an object of the government : posts were established, an invention at that time unknown in Europe ; the streets cleaned, lighted, and guarded, while the situation of the capital, connected in its different parts by causeways, was an object of constant care, and demanded the exertion of ingenuity. The Mexicans were acquainted with the art of working gold and silver : they represented men, animals, and other objects, with feathers differently coloured and shaded ; but these works, though greatly praised because they were unexpected, we find to be very indifferent performances. Their division of the year, and the intercalary days which they added, show some knowledge of astronomy. The houses and temples were mean buildings, except when masses of earth were enveloped with a case of stone. The want of civilization is strongly pointed out by the cruel treatment of the prisoners. They were killed and eaten without mercy ; while each emperor and every nobleman was accompanied to his tomb by a certain number of domestics, who were sacrificed on the occasion. Their agriculture was imperfect, and the men, seemingly from scanty fare, were weak. They were ignorant of the use of iron ; in a country abounding with gold and silver, commerce was carried on by barter ; and, in the interior parts of the country, there was no communication between distant provinces.

Though these facts are well supported, the count will not abandon his enthusiasm for Mexico ; but he adopts, with a blind prejudice, all the wonders, and all the exaggerations of the Spanish writers, though, if we had room to transcribe some of the more modest descriptions, they must prejudice every sober enquirer against his cause. He even contends that personal merit produced all the distinction of nobility, though he does not adduce a single authority in support of a position so improbable, and so little consonant to the spirit of the Mexican government.

The Peruvians were more civilised than the Mexicans ; but they were also ignorant of the use of iron, of money, and of writing : they had no domestic animal but the llama (a kind of sheep), which they employed to carry their burthens. They succeeded, however, in the useful and agreeable arts better than the Mexicans : they were better farmers ; they could refine and purify the silver ores, so as to make utensils and vessels of this metal for the most common purposes. They could even make some tools of copper, which they hardened in a way with which we are unacquainted. Their temples and their palaces, though built in a bad taste, and without windows, were solid and grand. Their roads and their bridges show great ingenuity ; and they had added masts and sails to their boats, to profit by the force of the wind. Their government was founded on their religion ; and that religion was mild and benevolent. They adored, in their incas, the children of the sun, and obeyed them as the divinity itself. They seem to have been the
only

only nation where despotism did not degenerate into tyranny, and superstition into cruelty. Lands were cultivated by the labour of the people in common; and the superintendant called them to their work, which was performed to the sound of musical instruments: it was the golden age, if the great inequality of rank and the humiliating servitude of one part of the nation had not drawn aside the mask. Death was inflicted for every crime, a severity like that of Draco, and inconsistent with the mildness of the religion; but the respect of the people for their king made crimes rare.

Society was not, however, so far advanced as these views might lead us to suppose: except Cusco there was no collection of houses which deserved the name of a city. The habitations were generally scattered, and communication was difficult. Professions were not divided; and consequently they were imperfectly exercised: only the most ingenious artists formed a distinct class. Agriculture, and the division of property in Peru, were inconsistent with commerce and with active industry. The Peruvians were timid and effeminate; yet they were often so deficient in delicacy as to eat their provisions raw. They deserve, however, a preference to the Mexicans; and we are not surprised to find the count in ecstacy when he contemplates their government, which he considers as the most beautiful and admirable system that ever existed. We can excuse this warmth; but we cannot pardon some rash and unfounded assertions which he has hazarded. 'What will you say, says he, if I assure you that the Peruvians acted comedies; and were passionately fond of this entertainment? Yet it is true: comedy was one of the pleasures of the Peruvians; but tragedy was preferred at Hascala (Thlascala of De Solis), where the people were republicans.' The author has not a shadow of foundation for either assertion; and, that the republican government rendered the inhabitants harsh and unfeeling, was a position we think little adapted to the meridian of Boston, where the translator first chose to publish these letters. Again: 'it is in Peru, says the count, where we have learned to build chimneys, which admit the fire laterally; on the top of which the vessels where the meat is dressed are placed. When the Peruvian ladies saw the indelicate manner in which the Spaniards prepared their dinners, they could not help exclaiming that the strangers knew nothing of cookery.'—This is the country where the inhabitants often eat their meat and their fish raw.

The second volume is absolutely systematic. The count considers America as peopled from the remotest antiquity. To explain why we have been so long unacquainted with it, he recurs to Plato's Atalantis, which was, he thinks, the link of communication between the two continents. When that was overwhelmed by the ocean, we lost all connection with America. From this our author takes occasion to enquire into the revolutions of this globe.

The

The count cannot determine the æra of this last revolution, without comparing the different religious theories of the two continents. The Spaniards thought they discovered some remains of Christianity in America; but these fragments were disfigured by neglect and superstition. They saw, or fancied that they saw, traces of baptism, circumcision, the two species of communion, confession, penitence, the religious tonsure, &c. Our author rests on these points, and the French translator (M. de Villebrune), for it is the translation only that we have been able to procure, sometimes confirms his conjectures, and sometimes rectifies them. The light of the sun relumed, at every vernal equinox, brings to the count and his translator's remembrance not only the vestal fire, the re-illumination of the lights of the (catholic) church, but the antiquity of telescopes, &c. The translator, not to be without his fancies, has added two letters on the deluge of Deucalion; and the feast of waters, which is said to be preserved in the use of holy water. Our author also endeavours to shew from Pliny (lib. ii. cap. 51.) Livy, Seneca, Ctesias, whose fragment is printed at the end of Herodotus, that the influence of conductors was known to the ancients. We wish they had employed them more frequently. A letter from M. Villeoson is also added, concerning the knowledge which Europeans had of America before the voyage of Columbus, and of the existence of the venereal disease previous to that æra.

It is in this place that the count examines particularly how the two continents could be separated. He thinks it impossible that the inhabitants of America could have reached our hemisphere: supposing their continent separated from ours, as it now is, by a vast sea, he thinks the gulf, which forms the barrier, was produced by some great revolution; and of this revolution the memorial he supposes is preserved in the archives of Egypt. There was consequently between the two continents land of a vast extent. The isles, which still exist in this space, are certainly, in his opinion, the tops of mountains which were higher than the encroaching ocean. In this way he accounts for the Azores, St. Helena, the island of Ascension, &c. This continent, he thinks, must have been greater than Africa and a great part of Europe together, for it must have amounted to 80 degrees of latitude, partly northern and partly southern. It furnished Africa and Europe with its astronomical knowledge, and carried the same information to America: in short, it was not only the link of communication, but the medium of knowledge. In his explanation of this system, and his answer to the objections which he perceives, he rests much on the *Atalantis* of Plato, though his description has by many been supposed to be allegorical. He employs every argument which natural history and tradition have furnished to show that the Atlantic and Mediterranean seas are effects of a revolution in our globe. This revolution, he undertakes to prove was produced by the approach

approach of a comet; and he has chosen that of 1759 as his agent, in one of its periodical appearances, about four thousand years before Christ. It unfortunately is not one of those comets whose orbits approach that of the earth; but comets, he observes, are irregular in their motions. Witness our expected visitant, which is not yet arrived. That there must have been a revolution the count endeavours to show from the various marine bodies observed on our highest hills, and the remains of animals in climates where they could not now exist. Various fancies of this kind remain in his cabinet, and they are to be published if the world approves of these Letters. We own that we think an apology necessary to our readers for dwelling so long on them; and if the future volume is not greatly superior, we shall leave it to enjoy its reputation on the continent, without adding our efforts to extend it. The Letters before us have been spoken of and praised: it was therefore necessary, consistently with our plan, to notice what our neighbours may think interesting. On the whole, though we are of opinion that this work deserves some applause, yet we cannot commend it without much reserve. The first volume shows that the author's knowledge is superior to his judgment: the second, on a subject involved in obscurity, must be necessarily hypothetical, and perhaps visionary. The Atalantis of Plato deserves, however, to have something said in its favour, not only from history, but the internal evidence of the coasts on each side, and the natural history of the present sea. But the subject is too doubtful to be discussed in this Journal; and we own, that its figure, in the Count de Carli's Letters, is not so interesting and attractive as to induce us to enlarge on it.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

FROM the accumulation of new Intelligence, for we have already observed that our labour increases under our hands, and additions are silently heaped up so as often to make the diminution of the stock apparent, rather than real, we should find it necessary to step back in our career, to add some meteorological observations. But these may be supposed to belong to natural philosophy, and we rather omit them, because they have increased to so great a bulk, that they will furnish one whole article of Intelligence, though we should not add the conclusion of M. Saussure's observations on Mount Blanc, which have not yet reached us. We may, however, be excused, as we shall not probably return to natural history for some months; if we give, a little out of its place, an account of some particular observations on a curious insect, which we have met with since we wrote our last sketch.

The pityocampasis, the caterpillar of the pine-tree, received its compound name from that substance. It was considered

dered as a poison, and as a remedy, according to its different employment; but our chief information is derived from M. Reaumur, who has attentively observed its manner of life: what has been added to his detail, till the time when this memoir was published, is frequently incorrect; but our author, guided by Reaumur, has carefully examined the insect in its secret haunts. The animal cannot bear much cold, and is, therefore, never found in the higher latitudes. It is styled processionary, because it never leaves its hold, where many families reside, till the evening, when it feeds in trains, led on by two or three, and this train leaves a ribband of silk in its way for those behind follow exactly the steps of those which preceded, and each leaves its share of silk. Their nests are found in autumn; they are born the middle of September, become torpid in December, and recover their strength again in spring. They then descend from the trees, plunge into the earth, and undergo their last change. It is the *bombix pityocampa* of Fabricius, (*Mantissa Insector. tom. ii. p. 114. N. 66.*) and greatly resembles the processionary caterpillar of the oak. The ancients used it as a vesicatory, and the acrimony seems to reside chiefly in a dust which is concealed in receptacles on its back. This is its offensive weapon, for it is thrown out at will, and produces very troublesome effects, though the hair of the animal and every part of its body seem to have a similar, but weaker power. The effect is also weaker in winter, but this may depend on the diminished irritability of the human body, as well as on the torpid state of the insect. Their silk is not sufficiently strong for the loom, and in hot water melts almost to a paste. In the earth it forms nests of stronger silk, but it is then found with difficulty: in boxes its silk is extremely tender. Adding to all these inconveniencies, handling the cones produces all the bad effects of the dust. Matthiolus recommends them as a styptic, and perhaps they may serve for burning on the skin instead of moxa, the downy silk of a species of *artemisia*. The ancients, afraid of its hurtful qualities, used them with caution, and enacted laws against their being sold promiscuously: the modern planter is chiefly afraid of them because they destroy the beauty of his trees, and he endeavours to collect the eggs by cutting off the branches which are burnt, immediately.

A vegetable production usually attributed to the bite of an insect, is the gall, which is not peculiar to the oak, though we are chiefly acquainted with the gall of the oak. This excrescence is undoubtedly owing often to an insect, but M. Albretif, so long since as the year 1772, showed us that in some of the galls of willow no aperture was visible, and therefore that the excrescence was probably not owing to the wound of an insect, but rather to the embryo of a young shoot repressed by frost or a sudden blight. This observation, M. Reynier has since confirmed on the *salix helix*, *alba*, *capræ*, &c. particularly on the *salix fusca* and *arenaria*. The two last grow generally in exposed

posed situations, and it confirms our author's opinion, that when they are in a warmer climate or a sheltered spot, this excrescence is less common. Similar powdery and abortive buds are found on the branches of the early spring flowers, and our author has found a similar one on the *quercus cerris*. It consisted of dry leaves, which seemed to form scales, and these were more closed the nearer they were to the extremity: the last were covered with the slight down, always observable under the leaves of the oak. In short, the whole structure seems to evince the foundation of the deformity.

Of a more natural but less observed structure of plants, we have an instance in M. Volta's account of the fructification of the rose tremiere (*alcea rosea*), which we the rather mention in this place, as it so strongly opposes M. Reynier's system. He found that, in the interior part of the bud, nature first forms the more essential parts, the stamina and the germ. 2dly. That the farina appears in the antheræ in the form of little globules, before the bud has acquired one-third of its size, and before the formation of the leaves of the corolla. 3dly. That the antheræ expand three or four days before the flower, and before the corolla has penetrated the calix. M. Reynier, in his opposition to the sexual system, tells us, that he took away the sexual organs of the flower before the bud opened; but he must have then cut off the corolla, which was close to the stamina, and formed a globule, not a bundle, which reached to the germ. When this was done with the utmost dexterity, the plant withered and died.

The lotus of Lybia has been the subject of a very learned dissertation by M. des Fontaines, of the Academy of Sciences, since the last time that we considered the improvements in natural history. The name of lotus has been given to many different plants, but two are remarkable in ancient history, the lotus of Egypt, which grew in the canals, through which the waters of the Nile flowed to fertilize the kingdom, well described by Prosper Alpinus, and called by modern authors, *nymphæa lotus*; and the lotus of Lybia, which grew naturally on the shores of that country, and has been the object of M. des Fontaines' researches. The real plant which gave occasion to some of the inhabitants of the coast of Lybia being called *lotophagi*, is described obscurely. Some have supposed it to be a species of the *cratægus*, which is indeed on this account called in the best dictionaries, the lote tree: others have thought it to be the *celtis australis*; Lin. Sp. Pl. 1478, others the *guaiacana*; but our author who has been on the spot assures us, that these trees are not natives of the coast of Lybia, and that the descriptions of Theophrastus, Polybius, and Pliny, do not agree with those of the plants mentioned. The *lotophagi* inhabited the neighbourhood of the gulf called the Lesser Syrtis, on the southern confines of the kingdom of Tunis, near the island Gerbi. The vegetable in question was evidently a tree, and our author

fought for it with uncommon attention, since it was not probable that a species on which the people fed, and which supported the armies of the Romans in their African campaigns, could be extinct. M. des Fontaines suspected that it might be the wild jujub tree, the rhamnus lotus of Linnæus, Sp. Pl. 281. This was the opinion of Shaw, and probably of Linnæus, as appears from the trivial name, but Shaw's description of the plant was imperfect, and our author tells us that the northern naturalist seems to have copied the imperfections of the traveller: he has endeavoured to supply the distinguishing marks in a short description. The lotus flowers in May, and its fruit is ripe about the end of August or the beginning of September; the taste is nearly that of the jujub, but more agreeable. M. des Fontaines then transcribes the descriptions of Herodotus, Theophrastus, Polybius, and Pliny, to show the agreement between them and the rhamnus lotus. The fruits of this plant which is still very common, are almost constantly used for the support of men and of cattle; so that our author's opinion is well supported: that the rhamnus was the tree described by Homer in the ninth book of the *Odyssey*, whose fruit was so agreeable as to make strangers forget their country, is an hypothesis not equally probable.

This same author, who resided long in Africa, has also communicated a very interesting memoir on the cultivation and the various æconomical uses of the date-tree. It is the great resource on the northern coasts of Africa; but it is only cultivated with care beyond the Atlas, because near the coast, the heat is not sufficiently great to ripen the fruits. Every part of Zaara near the Atlas, and the only portion of that vast desert which is inhabited, produces but little corn; its sandy and burning soil refuses every cultivation of this kind; and a little barley, maize, and sorgo (the greater millet), are its only produce. Their flocks are scanty, and the flesh bad tasted and unwholesome: they are only kept for the wool, and the date-tree furnishes their chief harvests. The date-trees are planted in clusters near the rivulets, which are conducted with care round them; and between the trees, the orange, the almond, the pomegranate, and the vine, are scattered. Around each tree a bank is raised to keep in the water, and the trees are also sprinkled with water in the hottest seasons. The date-tree is propagated in winter by suckers, and it produces fruit in three or four years, but the fruit is dry and has no kernel: the tree comes to perfection in about fifteen or twenty years, and then it is said not to be subject to any change for three generations. If propagated by seed, it seldom produces palatable fruit, for it seems to require successive years of melioration. The number of female trees is much more considerable than that of the males, because they are more profitable. The flowers expand in the months of April and May: at this time, the Arabs gather the male branches and fix them on the female ones,

ones, for without this precaution they find the fruit is abortive. In some districts they only shake the male branches over the female, and this practice is very ancient, for it is described by Pliny. The wood, though soft, is very durable, and though it burns slowly, its coals consume gradually and give a very strong heat. The Arabs raise the bark and fibrous parts of the young date-tree, and eat the white substance which is in the centre: they call it the marrow of the date-tree: it is a saccharine and nourishing food. They eat also the leaves when they are young, with the juice of the orange; and the old ones dried, make carpets and similar manufactures, for which the demand is not inconsiderable in the interior parts of the country. From the sides of the footstalk where it joins the trunk, a number of twisted threads are detached, which may be also made into cords and cloth. From the date-tree also, a white fluid called its milk is obtained. To procure it, all the branches of the top are cut off, and after having made many incisions into it, they are covered with leaves to prevent the evaporation; the juice is strained into a vessel fitted to a circular channel made round these incisions to receive it. This is a saccharine, agreeable, and very refreshing liquor when fresh, and is often given to the sick; but it grows sour in about twenty-four hours. The old trees are chosen for this operation, since they often die in consequence of it. The male flowers of the date-tree have also their use: they are eaten when young, mixed with the juice of orange. They are considered as aphrodisiacs, a virtue attributed to them, perhaps, in consequence of their smell. The date-trees form a great branch of the revenue of the inhabitants of the Desert; some of them bear even twenty bunches of dates, but they seldom leave so many even on the strongest trees, since the remainder more than compensate for the loss by their size: many are sent to Italy and France. Their harvest is about the end of November, and when the bunches are taken from the tree, they are hung up in the driest places to secure them from the insects. The fruit is a wholesome and agreeable aliment, particularly when it is fresh. The Arabs eat them without any addition: when they are dried in the sun, they reduce them to a kind of flour, which is their only provision during their long journeys across the Desert. The inhabitants of Zaara draw a kind of honey from them, and for this purpose they choose the softest, put them into a jar, press them with a considerable weight, and the honey flows through a hole in the bottom. The kernels are bruised and softened in water, when they afford good nourishment to the flocks and the horses. The Arabians reckon at least twenty different sorts of dates, and the trees of each kind as we have seen, must be an inestimable treasure.

While we are speaking of the properties of plants already known, we cannot overlook the very warm, earnest, and sanguine recommendations of the lentil of Canada, by M. Sonnini

de Manancourt, especially as the object of the author is to recommend a plant which will bear the rigours of the sharpest winter, and, in part, avert the dreadful evil of famine, an evil which seems impending over our neighbours, (July 18.) added to the dreadful calamities of a civil war, in consequence of the severity of last winter. It is an annual plant, and is really a kind of vetch: it is to be sowed in March, after a single ploughing in the ground that bore corn the year before. Manure is not absolutely necessary, though it will undoubtedly increase the crop. Its grass is said to be very copious; it may be mowed many times in the year, and affords a healthy as well as an agreeable food, to horses, cows, and sheep: the milk of cows fed with it, is said to be very copious and good. Long and numerous pods ripen about the beginning of winter, which afford a new kind of legumen, to be eaten as common lentils: when fresh, it makes admirable pease soup; dry it is greedily eaten by the poultry. The dried herb is also a good resource for cattle in winter. It grows on any kind of ground: our author had part of a field carried away by an inundation, and nothing would grow on that part, which was covered with stones, till he tried the Canadian lentil. For five successive years it has flourished without the assistance of manure: on a stiff clay it was equally successful, nor does it appear to degenerate when sown successively on the same ground. Our author also very strongly recommends the cabbage-turnip of Lapland; and we believe that it will be agreeable to some of our readers to be informed that the seeds of each may be procured at Paris. At the hotel de Calais, rue Coquillière, or at M. Villemorin Andrieu, marchand grainier, fleuriste, Quay de la Megisserie.

Some observations on the *fium latifolium*, by M. Dorthes, belong also to this part of our sketch, for they are in some degree new, though they relate to a plant well known. This species grows in abundance and to a great height in tranquil but not stagnant water. The leaves are simply pinnated, and the foliola are oval. But this description relates only to the leaves in the air, for those in the water are long, slender, and, in their minute divisions, almost capillary. They appear in the beginning of spring, and they only appear in their proper form on the old plants: when they emerge from the water, they become as usual, simply pinnated. If the plant be sowed only in moist ground, these capillary radical leaves do not appear; and if the old plant is taken from the water before the leaves come out, they are no longer capillary. This difference between the leaves of the stalk and the root, is not peculiar to this plant; we have seen it in the *ranunculus aquatilis*, in a very striking degree. It occurs also in the *fisymbrium aquaticum*, and the *fison inundatum*. On this subject, Linnæus thought that under water the leaves lost their parenchyma, and preserved only the fibrous part with its ramifications, in which the vessels are placed. But our author observes, with some propriety, that

that the length of the leaves more than compensates for the loss of the parenchyma, and he explains it from the tendency which the leaves and every part of a plant, except the root, have to approach to the sun and to the light.

Among the novelties respecting plants, we shall first mention the prospectus of a new work which promises to afford them. It is entitled *Florindie**; or, a physico-œconomical treatise of the plants of the torrid zone. It is designed to contain a history of the plants of St. Domingo, under names which are formed from their uses. Their generic names, their nomenclature, and their synonyms are to be added, with every other circumstance which relates to them. Each genus will be treated of separately, and embellished with a frontispiece exhibiting the name of the class, order, and family to which it belongs. Each volume is a large quarto, of at least three hundred pages, and with from thirty to fifty plates; will cost the subscribers 66 livres, (2l. 15s.) of which one volume must be paid for in advance. The number of volumes is not yet ascertained.

Of the new discoveries, we must mention first a species of bark, the indigenous bark of Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is called by M. Badier, who gives an account of it, the *quinquina piton*: scientifically, it is styled *cinchona montana*; c. foliis ovatis utrinque glabris, stipulis, basi connatis vaginantibus, corymbo terminali, corollis glabris. In almost all these particulars it differs specifically from the *cinchona Jamaicensis*, the plate of which now lies before us in the Philosophical Transactions, as well as that of the *quinquina piton* in the Journal de Physique. The tree is said to be very beautiful, more than forty feet in height, and the trunk of an old tree is often so large as not to be comprehended in the arms of a tall man: it has a large regular head of branches with a thick foliage. It flowers in the months of June and July. Three species of bark only have been hitherto discovered, the *cinchona officinalis* of Linnæus, the *c. caribbæa* of Linnæus and Jacquin, and the *c. corymbifera* of the younger Linnæus (Sup. Pl. 144.) We need not follow M. Badier in his specific distinctions: it is sufficient that the tree is particularly marked, and, so far as our present knowledge of it extends, ought to be ranked as a new species. The bark is not red like that of Peru; but when the epidermis is removed, it is greyish, or of a grey brown, and very bitter. It seems to contain no resin, for all its extract is soluble in water; but it is said to be a quick and very useful febrifuge, though it has at the same time an emetic and a cathartic power. To these, perhaps, its effect on fevers may be in part attributed; and it will require a separate consideration whether its evacuating properties may not prevent it from becoming a good substitute for the Peruvian bark, or whether it possesses any real tonic power.

A new species of *phaseolus*, which appears to be a very useful one, has been discovered by M. Moraney, an inhabitant

* Is this a fanciful abbreviation of *Flora indica*?

of Morne Rouge, dependant on the Cape ;' we suppose Cape François of the island of St. Domingo. In his search for plants, subservient to his collection of insects, for the king's cabinet, he was overtaken by night, and he passed it in a cave, to which he had recourse for shelter. At its extremity he found beds of fossils, broken pieces of burnt earthen-ware, some tools and other things, which showed that this cave had formerly been the habitation of the natives. Near it he saw a climbing plant attached to some trees, with clusters of dry pods hanging from it. These he gathered, and on his return sowed the seed. Some months after, the plants grew tall and strong : they appeared to resemble a *phaseolus* known at Perpignan by the name of *caraquoëla*, and in the superb port-folios of the king by that of *phaseolus Indicus*, *cochleato flore*, which produced many roots, not unlike the manioc. On examining the root after the pods were ripe, he found from three to eight roots of this kind. The force of the vegetation was wonderful ; but dreading the deleterious effects of recent manioc, he did not taste them, but subjected them to a chemical analysis, which proved nothing. After boiling them in water a little salted, he ventured to taste them, and found them moist, unctuous, and saccharine, not unlike potatoes. He made, after some hours trial, very good cassava with them, without being incommoded by the disagreeable fibres which are met with in the manioc during this operation. Since that time, biscuit and bread have been made from these roots, by M. Lombart, counsellor at the Cape. The plant has been found to be very common in the woods. It requires no peculiar management : its roots are in season when the pods blacken, and its fibres run in every direction searching for nourishment through the clefts of rocks, and receiving the impression of the strata without injury. If the principal root is left, the plant shoots again and flourishes as before ; but it is not yet ascertained whether it puts forth any new roots. The seeds are not alimentary when dressed, as if nature designed them only for propagating other plants. Every use which a farinaceous plant can supply, this new *phaseolus* has successfully answered ; and the seeds, in the hands of Mess. Heretier and Thouin, will probably furnish a sufficient quantity for curiosity as well as use.

Among the botanical collections which have appeared in the interval of our silence on this subject, we may mention the Berlin Flora, of which we have seen only an account of the Prodomus. It is in large octavo with seven plates. The author is M. C. L. Willdenow, and this is his first attempt : it is in many views a very respectable one : he has chiefly examined the plants in the neighbourhood of Berlin, and has discovered several rare ones.

In Germany too, we have received a similar work from M. Roth : it is styled *Tentamen Floræ Germanicæ*, and contains an enumeration of the plants which grow naturally in Germany,

many, from his own observation and the accounts of the best authors. He has followed Linnæus except in the cryptogamia, where his guides are Hedwig, Willdenow, and Wiggers. To each class is added a catalogue, where the species are pointed out, the places of their growth, and the persons by whom they were found. In a few instances, the descriptions of Linnæus are corrected. A supplement to the Flora Pedemontana has also appeared at Turin, by Dr. Ludovico Bellardi, occasioned by some plants mentioned in the medical topography of Chambery.

Retz's Fasciculi of Botanical Observations are full of useful information on the subject. We have not had an opportunity of noticing his former numbers; but the fifth has very lately appeared at Leipzig. In this number he gives a description of many new plants received from India, particularly from Tranquebar. The families which are chiefly augmented by this acquisition, are the cyperus, the scirpus, panicum, poa, and ropogon, pharus, and saccharum. The cinna arundinacea is referred to the agrostis, since two or three stamina are frequently observed in it. The bamboo is not, he thinks, a proper reed, but a peculiar genus, which he calls bambos arundinacea. We remark also the limonia pentaphylla, without thorns; the lagerstomia flos reginæ; sparmannia Africana; the abroma Wheeleri foliis ovato-lanceolatis, acuminatis, subdentatis; and the zinnia bidens, foliis pinnatifidis, feminum aristis longis retro aculeatis.

M. Newenhahn's Manual of Botanists is rather a catalogue of seeds which he sells, and in which he points out the plants most proper for a garden. He tells us that he has procured ripe seeds from the peloria.

In this part of our sketch we must mention some famous cabinets whose curiosities have been lately described. That of M. Lesken is extremely valuable, and we have received two volumes of the catalogue. The first related to insects, but it contained only a classification of insects in that collection, according to the system of Fabricius; there were, however, many species in it with which Fabricius was not at that time acquainted. The second, which is in reality the first of a professed description, is adorned with a fine portrait of M. Lesken. The preface is by M. Karsten, who informs us of the order in which the cabinet will be described, and the different philosophers who have assisted in this arduous undertaking. The first volume contains the mammalia, the birds, amphibia and fish described by M. Karsten; the insects by M. Tschach, and the worms by the society in general. This work is so elaborate, that it has been compared to the Museum Adolphi-Regis, Ulricæ Reginæ, Tessinianum, &c. descriptions which have survived the cabinets to which they related. Every part, from the specimens which we have seen, seems to be described with great accuracy; and this volume is illustrated with nine coloured

plates, representing many different objects. The cabinet is exceedingly rich in every part of natural history, and is said to have cost an immense sum. An abstract of the cabinet of the noble family of Bellisomi, which formerly belonged to cardinal Gualtieri, though greatly enriched by its present possessor, is published by M. Volta. It is in reality a catalogue raisonné (why have no equivalent English word?) abridged. That part which relates to animals is nearly the same with the system of Linnæus, but in many instances corrected. Our author has introduced a new class of animals, which have no heart and no proper circulation, as animalcules, zoophytes, and visceral worms. This triple class is called, we think improperly, polypi, which M. Volta defines to be animals analogous to vegetables, very simple, having neither a heart, nor vessels adapted to circulation. Though the work is in Italian, published at Padua, the parts which relate to animals and vegetables are written in Latin. But the minerals are arranged according to the author's own system, of which we have given an account in this Appendix; a short one indeed, because the work has been some time published, but it is too singular to be wholly omitted. With respect to the shells, naturalists will be highly pleased with the extreme exactness with which they are described, and with the table which he has formed of the new species, not hitherto classed. We forgot to mention that in classing animals, M. Volta has omitted the class of amphibia founded on the pretended discovery of arbitrary lungs (voluntary respiration) of which M. Vicq d'Azyr has pointed out the error, and has substituted the term reptiles, divided into those which have feet and those which have none. The amphibia nantia are carried to the fishes. This innovation is in many respects rash and arbitrary; we can by no means approve of it. We are sorry to be informed that the family of Bellisomi wish to dispose of this noble cabinet. We have still much to say on the natural history of particular countries, as well as on some works relating to geography, and, sinking from the surface to the internal parts of the earth, on mineralogy and volcanos. But we must not so far transgress our limits; and the labour of collecting from a variety of volumes is so great, as to lead us to wish for a little recollection. The subject shall not, however, be forgotten,

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

(Continued from p. 480.)

P O E T R Y.

The Abbey of Ambresbury. A Poem, Part II. By Samuel Birch, Author of Consilia, &c. 4to. 2s. Cadell,

THE general character of the present poem is similar to that of the first part, of which we gave an account, vol. LXV. p. 34. It contains one narrative which we prefer to the former;

mer; but the superiority is not very great. Though not a highly-finished performance, it will interest the imagination, and afford rational entertainment.

The Route ; or, A Sketch of Modern Life. From an Academic in the Metropolis to his Friend in the Country. 4to. 2s. Doddsley.

The author seems one of

‘The mob of gentlemen who write with ease.’

He appears to be well acquainted also with the scenes which he describes : his language is correct, and his versification free and animated. Though we can point out no very striking merit, we have seldom observed any very considerable faults.

The English Parnassus: being a New Selection of Didactic, Descriptive, Pathetic, Plaintive, and Pastoral Poetry, extracted from the Works of the latest and most celebrated Poets. By the rev. John Adams, A. M. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Kearsley.

Mr. Adams pretends to no merit but that of a compiler. He has chiefly collected from poets who have excelled in morality and pathos ; few pieces of humour are admitted, but these are excellent. The whole tends, as the editor observes, to ‘improve the taste of the young reader, or to inspire sentiments of wisdom, virtue, and benevolence.’

An improved Edition of the Songs in the Burletta of Midas, adapted to the Times. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This poetical Punchinello is the most forward buffoon we have seen. He burlesques unmercifully not only courts, courtiers, and statesmen, but even majesty itself. The object, however, which he chiefly attacks, is Carlton-house, where every thing is converted into farce by his whimsical humour.

The Banquet of Thalia ; or, the Fashionable Songsters Pocket Memorial. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Scatcherd and Whitaker.

The compilers of song-books are too often remarkably deficient in the selection of their materials ; but the present one, we must acknowledge, deserves to be exempted from this censure. He has formed his collection with taste and judgment, nor can we indeed dispute its pretensions to the title of a Banquet, with which he has thought proper to distinguish it.

Poems. By John Rannic. 4to. 3s. Sael.

The most considerable Poems in this collection are four pastorals, to which are prefixed the titles, ‘Morning, Noon, Evening, and Night.’ They are written in an easy, flowing style, but contain no novelty of imagery or sentiment. The other part of this publication consists chiefly of songs and sonnets : they likewise possess some portion of poetical merit, but are not marked by any striking excellence.

Liberty. A Pindaric Ode. By Charles Crawford, Esq. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

Mr. Crawford is a zealous advocate for the subject on which this

this Ode is written. He evidently shews himself to be a man of humanity, but not a poet.

Ode on his Majesty's Recovery. By the Author of Sympathy and Humanity. 4to. 1s. Walter.

'We know 'tis God, the living God that giveth

To our prayers a parent king;

We know, we know, that "Our Redeemer liveth,"

To Him—the Mighty One we sing!

The author should surely likewise have known that such lines as these could never be mistaken for poetry.

Crouch Hill, a Descriptive Poem. With some Account of Banbury Castle. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

This is said to be the performance of a young author: it is probably his first attempt, and may afford entertainment to the inhabitants of Banbury and its neighbourhood.

N O V E L S.

A Friend to Virtue. A Novel from the French. By the Translator of the Effects of the Passions. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Vernor.

The hero of this insipid tale scatters his money with all the profusion of some modern heroes of romance, and is at last very happy, and like Job, richer than before. If this work is of service to the cause of virtue, we shall rejoice: but we suspect that they will add little to the entertainment of their readers. They are, however, 'something new,' and this is the cry constantly heard in a circulating library.

The Follies of St. James's Street. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

We have seen nothing more trifling and insipid than these volumes; they are the lowest of their rank, and we consign them with hearty good will—to oblivion.

The Self-Tormentor. A Novel. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Wilkie.

If we allow for a little improbability resulting from the blindness of the self-tormentor, we can praise the general conduct of the novel before us. The author has led us, however, a little too pointedly to the model in his eye, Faulkland in the Rivals; but he has diversified his apprehensive diffidence with great skill, and added to it by concealing, though not with equal success, the affection of miss Ackworth. There are many marks of address in the conduct of the story; and the language, as well as the conversations, show the author to be much above the tribe of hackneyed novel-writers. Much of this work is in the style of Evelina.

D R A M A T I C.

Mary Queen of Scots. A Tragedy; as it is performed at the Theatre Royal Drury-Lane. By the hon. John St. John. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debet.

The dramatic unities of time and place are violated to a great degree in this Tragedy; and what is worse, there is nothing striking

striking in the incidents, characters, and dialogue, to compensate these faults. What effect it might have on the stage we know not: in the closet it certainly interests very little.

The Dramatic Pieces and Poetry of William Nation, jun. including the School for Diffidence, &c. 12mo. 3s. Printed for the Author.

We would seriously recommend to Mr. William Nation, jun. to attend to the duties of his station, as neither writing nor printing can furnish emolument to himself, or entertainment to his readers. The School of Diffidence we recommend to the attention of — its author.

DIVINITY AND RELIGIOUS.

The Country Curate's Address to his Parishioners; or, a Sermon preached on the 23d Day of April, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving to Almighty God, for the Recovery of his Majesty from his late severe Illness. 4to. 1s. Baldwin.

We are much pleased with this address: it is loyal, pious, and above all, it is short.

A Book of truly Christian Psalms, Anthems, and a Chant, fitting to be joined to all Church Services in the known World. By Leves Bruen. 12mo. 1s. Printed for the Author.

Mr. Bruen may, at least, vye in his department with Sternhold himself.

Letters addressed to a Young Gentleman, who had early imbibed the Principles of Infidelity. Dedicated to the most virtuous young Man in the Kingdom. 8vo. 1s. Matthews.

Who the most virtuous young man in the kingdom, to whom these Letters are dedicated, is, we know not; but this we know, that more information may be had from different treatises in defence of Revelation than from the Letters before us.

An Essay on the Folly of Scepticism; the Absurdity of dogmatizing on Religious Subjects; and the proper Medium to be observed between these two Extremes. By W. L. Brown, D. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.

This is an ingenious and instructive Essay. It obtained the gold medal of the Teylerian Society at Haerlem, in 1786, and was originally printed in the Memoirs of that Society.

The Probability of the future Happiness of Infants who die in Infancy, stated and considered. By D. Gillard. 8vo. 6d. Buckland.

This treatise is intended to remove the anxiety of those who entertain apprehensions respecting the future state of children who die in infancy. The author maintains the probability, 'that all who die in a state of infancy are elected, and, therefore, certainly saved.' His arguments are calculated to display the attributes of the Supreme Being in a comfortable point of view; and

and his style is well adapted to the capacities of those who are likely to constitute the principal part of his readers.

An Essay on the Advantages of the Knowledge revealed to Mankind, concerning the Holy Spirit. By the rev. J. Whitely, A. M. 4to. 1s. Johnson.

In this ingenious Essay, which gained the *Norristan* prize, the author extends the idea of the divine agency beyond the limits assigned to it by bishop Warburton in his *Doctrine of Grace*. Mr. Whitely supposes the operation of the Holy Spirit necessary for the attainment of faith and repentance; but that its agency is not compulsive. He writes like a liberal enquirer, and discovers a laudable desire to promote the interests of religion.

Free Thoughts on the Extent of the Death of Christ, &c. By J. Skinner. 12mo. 6d. Buckland.

The author of this pamphlet opposes, and, we think, with great justness of argument, the doctrine of reprobation, as being repugnant both to reason and revealed religion, and tending to propagate an unworthy opinion of the Supreme Being.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A brief Review of the Arguments for and against the intended Canal, from Cambridge to the River Stort. 8vo. 6d. Scatcherd and Whitaker.

It is usual for every scheme of this kind, whatever may be its general utility, to meet with the opposition of some individuals, who think their interests may be affected by the execution of the project. The same has happened in the present case; but so far as we can judge from hearing only one party in the dispute, the arguments advanced by those who urge the expediency of the canal, appear to be well founded and forcible.

Trial in the Court of King's Bench between E. Dodwell, Esq. Plaintiff, and the Rev. H. B. Dudley, Defendant, for Crim. Con. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds.

An additional instance of female weakness and clerical depravity.

An Essay intended to establish a Standard for an universal System of Stenography, or Short-hand Writing. By Samuel Taylor. Large 8vo. 11. 1s. in Boards. Bell.

It appears that the author of this system, Mr. Samuel Taylor, has been many years a teacher of the science at Oxford, and the universities of Scotland and Ireland. He differs in some of his characters from those of his predecessors, but his method of joining them is similar. We cannot decide from our own knowledge, concerning the superiority of the different methods; but Mr. Taylor's seems to have at least as good pretensions as any,

any, to simplicity, ease, and expedition, which are the great considerations in this art.

The Naval Atalantis; or, a Display of the Characters of such Flag Officers as were distinguished during the last War. By Nauticus Junior. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Ridgway.

This author, who styles himself Nauticus Junior, gives a display of the characters of such flag-officers as were distinguished during the last war. His narrative abounds with maritime facts, which can only be judged of by professional men; and from the extreme eulogy or censure, which he bestows on all the characters he mentions, there is the strongest reason to suspect the justness of his representations. Officers can hardly be supposed so good, or so bad, as he uniformly describes them.

The Speech of M. Necker, Director-general of the Finances, at the Meeting of the Assembly of the Notables, held at Versailles, Nov. 6, 1788. To which is added, the King's and the Keeper's Speeches. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This speech was delivered at the meeting of the assembly of the Notables, held at Versailles, Nov. 6, 1788; and in it Mr. Necker explains the points submitted to their deliberation, with great precision and perspicuity. To the speech of the director-general of the finances, is added that of the king, and the keeper.

Thoughts on Imprisonment for Debt. By F. A. S. Murray. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hookham.

Mr. Murray, the author of this pamphlet, delineates in lively colours the injuries which imprisonment for debt produces to the state, the creditor, and the debtor; and he thinks that if the practice must be continued, it ought at least to be limited to a certain period.

An Opinion on the Power of Courts Martial to punish for Contempts; occasioned by the Case of Major J. Browne of the sixty-seventh Regiment. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell.

The opinion delivered in this pamphlet, and signed W. Gilbert, took its origin from the case of Major John Browne, of the sixty-seventh regiment. The author impugns, with much learning and force of argument, the spirit and tendency of the fifteenth article of the sixteenth section of the Articles of War; and endeavours to show that the power of suppressing contempts by summary punishment, is either futile or fatal.

The Book of Nature; or, the true Sense of Things explained and made easy to the Capacities of Children. 8vo. 4d. Robinsons.

This little book is formed upon the principle, that every thing we see in the world speaks something to the mind, to instruct and improve it. The author has ingeniously extended his

his idea through a variety of subjects, which he renders subservient to morality, and in a style well adapted to the capacity of children.

Lilly's Accidence enlarged; or, a Complete Introduction, in English Prose, to the several Parts of English Grammar. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Lowndes.

We have only to say of this work, that it is the seventh edition with improvements.

Sacred Extracts. 8vo. 4s. bound. Dilly.

The compiler of this book supposes, that one great cause of the neglect of the scriptures in schools, is a disapprobation of reading them indiscriminately; in consequence of which many trifling and uninteresting works are substituted in their place. The present Extracts are intended to remedy these inconveniences; and the chapters chosen from the New Testament are those particularly recommended by Anthony Blackwall.

The History of a School-boy; with other Pieces. 24mo. 1s. Stockdale.

A fantastic mixture of Latin and English, thrown higgledy-piggledy into doggrel rhymes, with truly puerile ingenuity.

An Account of the Trial of Will. Brodie and George Smith, before the High Court of Justiciary, for breaking into and robbing the General Excise Office of Scotland, on the 5th of March, 1788. By W. Creech. 4to. 4s. in Boards. Cadell.

The Trial of W. Brodie, Wright and Cabinet-Maker of Edinburgh, and of G. Smith, Grocer there, before the High Court of Justiciary, held at Edinburgh; for breaking into the General Excise Office at Edinburgh on the 5th of March, 1788. By Æneas Morison. 8vo. 3s. Elliot and Kay.

The author of the former of these narratives was one of the jury on the trial. Both of them appear to be accurate: that of Mr. Creech is accompanied with portraits of the prisoners and an account of their behaviour.

A Letter to the Court of Directors of the Society for improving the British Fisheries; with a Plan for the Erection of Villages. 12mo. 1s. Cadell.

The object of this author is to recommend to the Society to purchase a large tract of arable and meadow land, with a considerable quantity of moor, and to let the arable land with the annexed right of common, in small lots, on building-leases for twenty-one years. Some other proposals are mentioned, but as they only concern the Society, the members of which are doubtless already acquainted with, it is unnecessary for us to say any more upon the subject.

A Sketch

A Sketch of Universal History. To which is added a brief Chronology of the most remarkable Events in the History of England. Embellished with thirty-six Heads of the Kings, from Egbert to George III. included. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This Sketch would have proved more useful had it been a little more copious; but as it is, it may convey instruction to young reader. It is embellished with thirty-six heads of the kings from Egbert to George III. inclusive; and there is added a brief chronology of the most remarkable events in the history of England.

The Lady's Complete Guide; or, Cookery and Confectionary in all their Branches, &c. By Mrs. Cole. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Kearsley.

Mrs. Cole appears to be a well-informed woman in the art of Cookery; and we have no doubt that her treatise, as appearing to be very carefully executed, will prove highly useful. She has likewise given instructions for brewing in all its branches, besides a marketing-table, another for buying and selling, and a specimen of a housekeeping-book.

Moral Essays and Reflections. By Mrs. Gossling. 8vo. 3s. in Boards. Robinsons.

Though we perceive nothing objectionable in these little Moral Essays, or Lilliputian sermons, yet our language so abounds with works of a similar nature, and of infinitely superior merit, that we do not see the necessity of this publication.

At the head of this work there appears a very numerous list of subscribers, who, we doubt not, had some good motive for the support they have afforded to the author.

Anecdotes, Bon-mots, &c. of the greatest Princes, Politicians, &c. of modern Times. By the rev. J. Adams, A. M. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Kearsley.

These Anecdotes are chosen with some care, but they are too common, too much hackneyed in the eyes of men, to give much pleasure to the instructed reader: to younger minds they will be interesting and useful. In some parts of the work there is, however, a little opposition; the anecdotes, for instance, of the czar Peter I. are of a different complexion from those which Mr. Stæhlin has afforded in the latter part of the work.

French Morality cut Short; or, the Chance attending a Seat at a Fire-Side. A Moral Dialogue. Translated from the French of M. de Crebillon. 12mo. 3s. Robinsons.

This work is styled in the title-page a Moral Dialogue. If we rightly understand it, but of this we are not certain, it is a very immoral one. The French press teems with frivolous productions of this nature, made up of the equivocal jargon of sentimental gallantry. We see nothing in the work before us to entitle

entitle it to the distinction of being translated. We do not think any reader will be amused by it, or rise from the perusal either wiser or better.

The Juvenile Tatler. By a Society of Young Ladies, under the Tuition of Mrs. Teachwell. small 8vo. 1s. half bound. Marshall.

This little collection of Characters and Dialogues, chiefly of the dramatic cast, is very pleasing, and will probably be useful. The general instructions contained in the work are unexceptionable, if the lady will not insist too strongly on the motto to the Wary Mother—‘*It is very important to young women, early to distrust men in general.*’

Reading made most Easy: consisting of a Variety of useful Lessons. By W. Rusher. Third Edit. 12mo. 1s. Gough.

This little work seems to be very well adapted to the youthful organs, and the imperfect articulation of the younger reader. The Lessons are also moral and instructive.

History of some of the Effects of hard Drinking. By J. C. Lettsom, M. D. 4to. 6d. Dilly.

The merit of this paper, included in the last volume of the Medical Memoirs, was not so great as to admit of a separate publication. But if it is of service in a moral view, we are not so unreasonable as to object to it.

Report of the practical Utility of K. McCulloch's Sea Compasses. 8vo. 3d.

The Report of capt. Auvergne, of the Narcissus frigate, appears to us perfectly satisfactory; and, after considering the plan of this new mounted compass, it would, we think, be unexceptionable, if it played on a stone of greater hardness than an agate; for when a hole is worn in it, the compass will not easily recover its position.

A Letter to the Farmers of Great Britain, on some Things of Importance. 12mo. 3d. Rivingtons.

This may be an useful little work to circulate among the common people; but we wish the author had confined himself wholly to the moral duties. Election, regeneration, and original sin are not proper subjects for those to whom his letter is addressed.

Remarks on Mr. Martin's Publication, entitled 'Thoughts on the Duty of Man, relative to Faith in Jesus Christ.' By Andrew Fuller. 12mo. 6d. Buckland.

It is enough to mention this publication by Mr. Fuller: the tendency of the controversy we have already noticed, and have declined giving any opinion on its merits.

I N D E X.

A.

- A** BELARD to Eloisa, Leonora to Tasso, Ovid to Julia, Spring and other Poems, 4th Edit. 136
- Abortions, among cattle, contagious in some parts of France, 459
- Academy, Royal Irish, transactions of the, in matters of science, literature, and antiquities, 1
- Acid, phlogisticated muriatic, reflections by M. Berthollet on the compounds of the, 301
- phosphoric, discovered to be in a variety of materials, 303.—Acid, saccharine, conjectures on the, 304.
- Acid discovered in borax, 305
- Address to those, who in their public and private capacity, resisted the claim of the house of commons to nominate the ministers of the crown, 71
- to his majesty on his happy recovery, with a short review of his reign, some remarks on the late procession to St. Paul's, and the reported voyage to Hanover; with the character of a pious king, a patriot prince, and an imperious minister, 473
- to young persons after confirmation, by Richard Watson, lord bishop of Landaff, 476
- of the country curate, to his parishioners: or a sermon, preached on the 23d of April, being the day appointed for a general thanksgiving to Almighty God, for the recovery of his majesty, 555
- Addresses, authentic specimens of all past and future to the minister and his virtuous majorities in parliament, for voting to themselves all the rights of the people, and prerogatives of the crown of England, 159
- Administration, copy of a declaration and articles, subscribed by the members of, 230
- Adoration, political, or an Address to the devil, by a foul fiend, 313
- Ahadee, Bossa, king of Dahomy, an inland country of Guinea, memoirs of the reign of, by R. Norris, 443
- Air, curious memoir by M. Lavoisier, on the alterations which take place in the, 460
- Airs, inflammable and dephlogisticated, letter to Dr. Priestley and other gentlemen, on their fallacious notions concerning, 238
- Alfred, and Alfred unmasked, two political pamphlets, respecting the late affair of the regency, 228
- Ambresbury, the abbey of, a poem, Part II. By Samuel Birch, author of *Consilia*, &c. 552
- Lettres Americaines, dans lesquelles on examine l'Origine, &c. les Anciens Habitans de l'Amerique, pour servir de suite aux Memoires de D. Ulloa. Par M. le Comte de Carli, President du Conseil Supreme d'Economie Publique, &c. 2 toms.* 537
- Anacharsis, Voyage du Jeune, en Grece, dans le Milieu du quatrieme Siecle avant l'Ere Vulgaire.*
- Anacharsis, the younger, journey of the, to Greece, in the middle of the fourth century before the Christian era, 7 vols. 8vo. and one vol. 4to. of maps, plans, views, and medals of Greece, 526
- Anecdotes, &c. ancient and modern, observations on, by J. P. Andrews, F. A. S. 340
- bon-mots, &c. of the greatest princes, politicians, &c. of modern times, by the rev. John Adams, A. M. 559
- Animal fluids, memoir by M. Fourcroy, on the alteration which they undergo by the effects of diseases and the action of remedies, 458.— Another by the same author, on the nature of the muscular fibre, and the seat of irritability, 459
- Antipædobaptism, examined, 392
- Antiquities, military, or the history of the English army, from the conquest to the present time, by F. Grose, esq. F. A. S. 28
- Antiscorbutic plants, taken from the family

I N D E X.

family of the cruciferae, analysis to determine the nature of, by M. Tingry, 456
 Argus, or the house-dog at Eadlip, a novel, by the author of Constance and the Pharos, 3 vols. 396
 Art polygraphic, address to the public, on the, being the invention of Mr. J. Booth, a portrait painter, 156
 Arundel, a novel, by the author of the Observer, 2 vols. 78
 Atalantis, the naval; or a display of the characters of such flag-officers, as were distinguished during the last war, by Nauticus Junior, 557
 Atoms, antagonists of Peter Pindar reduced to, 233
 Author of Alfred, letter to the, with the history of the royal malady, 310
 High Auvergne, natural history, and productions of, with an account of some peculiar diseases incident to its inhabitants, by M. de Briende, 455

B.

BARK, indigenous of Guadaloupe and Martinico, called by M. Badier, the quinquina piton, 549.—Said to be a quick and useful febrifuge, though at the same time endowed with an emetic and cathartic power, *ibid.*
 Barometer, conjectures on some of the phenomena of the : to which is added, a paper on the inversion of objects on the retina, by Robert McCausland, M. D. 479
 The Bastile; or the history of Charles Townly, a man of the world, 4 vols. 475
 Beaufoy, Mr. speech of, for regulating the conveyance of negroes to the West Indies, 390
 The Bee, or the exhibition, exhibited in a new light, 318
 ——— or, a companion to the Shakespear gallery, containing a catalogue-raisonné of all the pictures, with comments, illustrations, and remarks, 476
 Belgrave, lord, ode to, with a description of Eaton, the seat of lord Grosvenor, 235
 Bentinck, sir Charles and Louisa Cavendish, history of, by the author of Laura and Augustus, 3 vols. 237
 Berlin, court of, secret history of the : or, the character of the present king of Prussia, his ministers, mistresses, generals, courtiers, favourites, and the royal family of Prussia.—In a

series of letters, translated from the French, 481
Bibliotheca Classica, or a classical dictionary of all the proper names mentioned in ancient authors, with tables of coins, weights and measures, in use among the Greeks and Romans 79
 Birds, descriptions and plates of the most uncommon, 146
 Bodies, resurrection of, discourse concerning the, 256
 Botanical collections in the neighbourhood of Berlin, 550.—Also in other parts of Germany, 551
 Botany-Bay, narrative of the expedition to, 336
 Andrew Robinson Bowes, esq. trial of, for adultery and cruelty, whereby the countess of Strathmore obtained a divorce, 319
 Bridges, iron, construction of, 142
 Britannia, tears of, a poem, by a lady, 234
 British fisheries, letter to the court of directors of the society for improving the; with a plan for the erection of villages, 558
 Burke, the right hon. Edmund, charge against by major Scot, 231

C.

CABINETS, some famous, of which the curiosities have been lately described, 552
 Canal, intended, from Cambridge to the river Stort, brief review of the arguments for and against, 556
 Caribbs, a race of men, particularly in the island of St. Vincent, little known, 460.—One of their heads examined by M. Arthaud, found of a very peculiar form, 461
 Catalogue, astronomical general, arranged in zones of north polar distance, &c. preface to a specimen of a, by F. Wollaston, F. R. S. 319
 Cause, real, and cure of insanity, treatise on the, by And. Harper, 317
 Cæsura, the Greek defined, 435
 The Cetacea, in the opinion of Linnaeus, nearly allied to man, 461.—Observations by M. Bauffard on a mother and the young of these animals, 462
 Characters, contemporary, poetical rhapsody on, 312
 Charge, by the bishop of Landaff, delivered to the clergy of his diocese, 141
 Che-

Chemistry, medical and pharmaceu-
tical, and the materia medica, short
appendix to Dr. David Monro's
treatise on, 368

——, theoretical and practical,
a general system of, digested and
arranged, with a particular view
to its application to the arts, by C.
R. Hopson, M.D. taken chiefly
from the German of M. Wiegleb,
409

Child of doubt, a novel, by Indiana
Brooks, 2 vols. 397

*Chimie, Traité Elementaire de, par M.
Lavoisier, de l'Academie des Sciences,
&c. 2 tom. 8vo. 531*

Christ, words of, with notes explana-
tory, 151

Christian religion, ground and credi-
bility of the, preached in a course
of sermons by the rev. R. Shepherd,
before the university of Oxford, at
Bampton's lecture, 50. See Sermons.

Cicero, Marcus Tullius, translation
of his orations against Caius Corne-
lius Verres, by James White, esq.
425

Commentaries, medical, for the year
1788. By A. Duncan, M.D. 197

Constitution, ecclesiastical, journals
of the American convention, ap-
pointed to frame a, and prepare a
liturgy for the episcopal churches
in the united states, 450

Couch, or dog's grass, curious obser-
vations as to the use that may be
made of it, 416

Country gentleman's letter to a mem-
ber of parliament, answer to, 388

*Agnes de Courci, a domestic tale, by
Mrs. Bennet, author of the Welch
heirefs and juvenile indiscretions,
4 vols. 474*

Courts of requests, the nature, utility,
and powers of, described, 349

—— martial, opinion on the power
of, to punish for contempts: occa-
sioned by the case of major J. Browne,
of the 67th regiment, 557

Craven, lady, journey, written by
her, through the Crimea to Con-
stantinople, 281

Crim. con. trial for, in the court of
king's-bench, between E. Dodwell,
esq. plaintiff, and the rev. B. Dud-
ley, defendant, 556

Crouch-Hill, a descriptive poem, 554

Crystals, coloured, the art of making,
to imitate precious stones, translated
from the French of M. Fontanieu,
by W. Drew, 478

D.

D Alrymple, sir John, bart. queries
by, concerning the conduct
England should follow in the pre-
sent State of Europe, [1788.] 291

Date-tree, memoir on the cultivation,
and the various economical uses of
the, 546

Death of Christ, free thoughts on the
extent of the, by J. Skinner, 556

Debt, imprisonment for, unconstitu-
tional and oppressive, proved from
the fundamental principles of the
British constitution, and the rights
of nature, by E. Farley, esq. 133

——, thoughts on imprisonment for,
by F. A. S. Murray, 557

Diadem, royal, the prince's right to
the, defended, 73

Dialogue between the P. of W. and
Mr. F. 158

—— between a master and his
scholar, 398

Diluents, treatise on, by Mr. Jameson,
with an inquiry into the diseases of
the fluids of the human body to as-
certain the operation of diluents up-
on them, 127

Discourses, on different subjects, by
the rev. R. Polwhele, 123

Diseases incident to Females, with a-
poplexy and palsy; madness, sui-
cide, &c. treatise on, by W. Row-
ley, M.D. 169

Diversity, a poem, by Della Crusca,
129

*Hard Drinking, history of some of
the effects of, by J. C. Lettsom, 560*

Dupaty, Abbé, two different transla-
tions from the French into English,
of the opinions of the, on Italy:
the first by J. Povoleri, intitled Sen-
timental letters; the second, by the
name of Travels through Italy, 11

Durham, history and antiquities of the
county palatine of, vol. II. by W.
Hutchinson, F. A. S. 42

Duty of man, relative to faith in
Christ, thoughts on, by J. Martin,
152

E.

E Arths, of certain qualities, de-
scribed, 412

*East India company, inquiry into the
situation of the, by G. Crauford,
esq. 318*

Education, sermons on, by the rev.
E. W. Whitaker, 507

O o 2

Elegy

I N D E X.

- E**legy, written on the author's revisiting the place of his former residence, 235
- E**mbarrassment, national, and proceedings in parliament, observations on the late, by J. L. de Lolme, 214
- E**mergency, present, solemn appeal to the citizens of Great Britain and Ireland, upon the, 72
- late political, retrospective view of the, and of the conduct of the managers on both sides, 309
- E**ngland and Wales, delineation of, in regard to chorographical description, and accounts of their more important products, natural and artificial, 447
- E**nthusiasm, a poem, by Mr. Jerningham, 249
- E**pistle, poetical, to a falling minister, by Peter Pindar, 233
- Four pleasant Epistles, for the entertainment of four unpleasant characters,* 311
- poetical, by the rev. William Atkinson, 470
- astronomical and geographical, by G. Adams, 16
- E**vidence, that the relation of Josephus concerning Herod's having new built the temple at Jerusalem, is either false, or misinterpreted, continuation of the, by the author of the evidence, 429
- E**xchange, bill of, proof of a, under one of the late bankruptcies, 155
- E**xeter, the duke of, an historical romance, 3 vols. 476
- The Exiles; or the memoirs of count de Cronstadt, a novel,* by Clara Reeve, 3 vols. 75
- E**xperiments, philosophical, in the Alps, some account of, by M. de Saussure, 222
- F.**
- F**action, the fall of, or Edmund's vision, soaring to the beautiful and sublime, 230
- F**ailing, the man of, a tale, 2 vols. 237
- F**armers of Great Britain, letter to the, on some things of importance, 560
- F**ield-fortification, instructions upon every branch of, translated from the German of J. G. Tielke, 328
- Flora Rossica, seu stirpium Imperii Rossici per Europam & Asiam indigenarum, Descriptiones & Icones. Edidit P. S. Pallas, jussu & auspiciis Catharinae II. Augustae. Tom. I. Fol. Max.* 64
- Flora Caroliana,* 80
- F**œtus, inquiries by M. Thouret, of the different degrees of compression the head of the, is susceptible, 459
- F**ood, given to young silk-worms, thoughts on the different kinds of, and the possibility of their being brought to perfection in the climate of England, by S. Besteren, 477
- F**oreign Literary Intelligence, 138, 221, 297, 378, 460
- F**orrester, Louisa, or characters drawn from real life, 3 vols. 76
- F**ortescue, or the soldier's reward, a characteristic novel, 2 vols. 397
- F**ossils of Cornwall, observations relative to the mineralogical and chemical history of the, translated from the German of M. H. Klaproth, by J. Gottlieb Groeschke, 9
- F**rancklyn, G. esq. answer by, to the rev. Mr. Clarkson's essay on the slavery and commerce of the human species, particularly the African, 511
- F**reedom and slavery, liberal strictures on, 389
- F**rederic II. king of Prussia, life of: to which are added observations, authentic documents, and a variety of anecdotes, translated from the French, 489
- F**rench morality cut short; or the chance attending a seat at the fireside: a moral dialogue, translated from the French of M. de Crebillon, 559
- The French scholar put to trial: or questions on the French language, with an explanation of several rules,* by J. A. Ourry, 80
- G.**

- G**entleman, young, letters addressed to a, who had early imbibed the principles of infidelity, 555
- G**ibbon's three last volumes of the Roman History, observations on, 238
- G**lass, chemistry of, 414
- G**ospels, the four, translated from the Greek, with preliminary dissertations, and notes critical and explanatory, by G. Campbell, D.D. F.R.S. 2 vols. 4to. 401
- G**outy persons, advice to, by Dr. Kentish, 316
- G**reat

I N D E X.

- Great Seal, use and abuse of the, 72
 Green, jasper, the stone for setting
 lancets, analysed by M. D'Auben-
 ton, 460
 Grove of Fancy, a poem, 313
 Gynomachia; or, a contest between
 two old ladies, in the service of a
 celebrated orator, 470

H.

- H** Armattan, a remarkable wind
 on the coast of Guinea, describ-
 ed, 444
 Harmony of satisfaction and free
 grace, in the salvation of sinners,
 defence of, by S. Rowles, 152
 Health, temple of, a poetic vision, by
 a lady, 470
 Heat, animal, and the inflammation
 of combustible bodies, experiments
 and observations on, by A. Craw-
 ford, M. D. 2d Edition, 90
 ——— dissertation on, 410
 Herrings, memoir by M. Noel Mori-
 niere, on the migration of, 462
 Herschel, the royal astronomer, fan-
 cies of Tom Plumb, on the late
 marriage of, 395
 History, universal, a sketch of; to
 which is added, a brief chronology
 of the most remarkable events in
 the history of England: embellish-
 ed with 36 heads of the kings, from
 Egbert to George III. included, 559
 ——— natural, of animals, veget-
 ables, and fossils in Great Britain
 and Ireland, by J. Berkenhout,
 M. D. 259
 Holy Spirit, essay on the advantage
 of the knowledge revealed to man-
 kind, concerning the, by the rev.
 John Whitely, 556
 Homer, select passages from, publish-
 ed by T. Burgess, A. M. 136
 Horses, treatise on the prevention of
 diseases incident to, from bad ma-
 nagement in regard to stables, food,
 water, air, and exercise, by J. Clark,
 276
 Horse-radish and scurvy-grass, expe-
 riments on the distilled water of, by
 M. Gueret, 457
 Hunter, American, the, a Tale, 154
 The Hymeneal party, or the generous
 friends, a comedy, by a young gen-
 tleman, 474

I.

- J** Ames's-street, St. the follies of,
 554

- Jesus Christ, as the true God of
 heaven and earth, the worship of,
 vindicated by J. Hodson, M. D.
 153
 The Impostors, a comedy, by R. Cum-
 berland, esq. 204
 Infancy, or the management of chil-
 dren, a didactic poem in six books,
 by H. Downman, M. D. 4th edit.
 19
 Infants, who die in infancy, the pro-
 bability of their future happiness,
 stated and considered, by D. Gillard,
 555
 Interview, royal, a fragment, 310
 Irish, ancient and modern dress of
 the, with a memoir on their ar-
 mour and weapons, by J. C. Wal-
 ker, 23
 Juliet, or the Cottager, by a lady, in
 a series of letters, 2 vols. 238

K.

- K** ING, important facts and opi-
 nions relative to the, 230
 King's illness, attempts to ascertain
 the causes of the, and assign a new
 method of treating it, 235
 ——— recovery from his late indis-
 position, reflections on the conse-
 quences of the, 229
 ——— recovery, and resumption of
 the royal powers, free thoughts on
 the, 310

L.

- L** Ady's complete guide; or cook-
 ery and confectionary in all their
 branches, &c. by Mrs. Cole, 559
 Lardner, Nathaniel, D. D. works of,
 2 vols. 261
 Laureat, the sick, or Parnassus in con-
 fusion, 232
 ——— of the prince of Wales, re-
 strictions concerning the, 396
 Law, concerning bills of exchange,
 promissory notes, and the evidence
 of a trial by jury thereto relating,
 &c. explanation full, clear, and
 familiar of the, 320
 Leger, Anthony, a man of shifts, life
 and adventures of, 3 vols. 397
 The Lentil of Canada, recommended
 by M. Sonnini, as an article of im-
 portant cultivation, to avert the
 dreadful evil of famine, 548
 Lenox, col. short letter to, on his con-
 duct towards the duke of York, by
 an officer of the army, 476
 Let-

- Letter, to the lord chancellor, on the subject of a petition, relating to the proof of a bill of exchange, under one of the late bankruptcies, 155.
 —Of the prince of Wales to Mr. Pitt, 156.—To the most insolent man alive, 157.—Answer to it, 229.
 —To the right hon. Mr. Fox, on the conduct of his party, 157.—From an Irish gentleman in London to the people of Ireland, on the limitation of the regency, 158.—To a prince from a man of Kent, ib.
 —From a country gentleman to a member of parliament, on the present state of public affairs, 159.—To John Horn Tooke, esq. occasioned by his two pair of portraits, and other late publications, 160.—By C. Davy, M. A. on the Greek language, music, and other subjects of literature, 162.—Seven, to the people of Great Britain, by a whig, 229.—On the present state of the nation, 230.—To Dr. Priestley on the unreasonableness of his opinions, 232.—To the people of Great Britain and Ireland, on the expected addresses to the king, &c. with remarks on the late regency-bill, 311.
 —To the lords spiritual of parliament, with anecdotes of the character and vices of the present clergy, 320.—On slavery, by W. Dickson, 389.—To hypochondriac and nervous patients, by S. Freeman, M. D. 393.—Of Mrs. Stewart, to lord Rawdon, 399
 Letters, from Barbary, France, Spain, Portugal, &c. by an English officer, 499
 Liberty, a Pindaric ode, by Charles Crawford, esq. 553
 Lightfoot, Mr. John, life of, [*given to the purchasers of the Flora Scotica*] 79
 Limitation of the regency, letter from an Irish gentleman in London to the people of Ireland on the, 74
 List, correct, of all the regencies since the origin of parliament to the present period, 72
 Liturgy, observations on the, with a proposal for its reform, upon the principles of Christianity, as professed and taught by the church of England: by a layman of the church of England, late an under secretary of state, 450
 Lotus of Lybia, made the subject of a very learned dissertation, by M. des Fontaines, of the academy of Sciences, 545.—The fruits of the plant, still very common, are constantly used for the support of men and cattle, 546
 Loyalty, tears of, a poem, 233
 Lukin's George, the Yatton demoniac, authentic anecdotes of, with a view of the controversy, and full refutation of the imposture, 80
- M.
- M**Ajesty, convalescent, reflections, comprizing the political sentiments of, 388
Petit Maitre, and the man on the wheel, 507
 Martin, Mr. remarks on his publication, intitled 'Thoughts on the duty of man, relative to faith in Christ.' By Andrew Fuller, 560
 Mary, queen of Scots, a tragedy, by the hon. John St. John, 554
 Mathematical Philosophy, published at Florence, by the professors Canovai and Ricco, elements of, 138
 Materia medica, treatise of the, by W. Cullen, M. D. 2 vols. 4to. 435, 517
 Mechanics, and hydrostatics, Parkinson's system of, 321
 Medical society of London, memoirs of the, vol. II. 265. Concluded, 344
 Medicine, history of the French royal society of, for the years 1782, and 3, 305
Medicine, Histoire de la Societ  de, Ann es, 1782, 1783. (concluded from p. 309.) 454
 ——— instruments of, or the philosophical digest, and practice of, 333
 Menstrua, particular remarks on crystallization and the effects of attraction in the action of, 299
 Mensuration, treatise on, both in theory and practice, 2d edit. by C. Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S. 207
 Metals, chemistry of, 414
 Midas, improved edition of the songs in the burletta of, adapted to the times, 553
 Minister, recovering, poetical declaration from a, to his friends, 235
Elementi di Mineralogia, &c.—Mineralogy,

I N D E X.

logy, analogical and systematical, elements of, by Giovanni Serafino Volta, doctor in theology, canon, &c. &c. 8vo. Rome, 535
 Miserio's vision, a poem, 470
Organized Molecules, the system of Bouffon, relative to, revived by M. Reynier, 465
 Monsey, Dr. sketch of the life and character of the late, 239
 Moral essays and reflections, by Mrs. Gosling, 559
 Motion, mechanics, hydrostatics, &c. theory of, by M. Van Swinden, 138
 Mushrooms, the vegetable nature of, attacked by M. Medicus, 466.—
 Mushroom-beds, how propagated in England, *ibid.*
 Music, poetry, and oratory, alliance of, by A. Bayley, LL. D. 273

N.

Narrative, important, of facts, in answer to Dr. Wither's pamphlet of Alfred, 229
 Nation, William, jun. the dramatic pieces and poetry of, including the school for diffidence, 555
 Natural philosophy, principles of, by M. de la Metherie, 139
 Nature, the book of, or the true sense of things explained and made easy to the capacities of children, 557
 Necker, M. director-general of the French finances, speech of, at the meeting of the assembly of the notables, held at Versailles, Nov. 6, 1788, with the king's and keeper's speeches, 557
 Negro-slavery, essay on the subject of, by the rev. H. E. Holder of Bardadoes, 389
 — slaves in the island of Jamaica, code of laws for the government of the, published for the use of both houses of parliament, and the satisfaction of the public at large, by Stephen Fuller, esq. agent for Jamaica, 471
 Nervous fevers, inquiry into the nature, causes, and termination of, by R. Jones, M. D. 393
 Nomenclature, new, a subject of much controversy, 298

O.

Observations on a letter, to the most insolent man alive, 311
 Oration, Latin, by the public orator,

in compliance with the will of Mr. Crew, 399
 Orator, the English, by the rev. R. Polwhele, 354
 Original, poetical, miscellaneous pieces, 235

P.

Pannel, the, an entertainment of three acts, altered from the comedy of "Tis well 'tis no worse." 474
 Parian chronicle, vindication of the authenticity of the, in answer to a dissertation on that subject, by the rev. John Hewlett, 494
 Parnassus, the English, being a new selection of didactic, descriptive, pathetic, plaintive, and pastoral poetry, extracted from the works of the latest and most celebrated poets, by the rev. John Adams, A. M. 553
 Patella, or knee-pan, essay on the fracture of the, with observations on the fracture of the olecranon, 236
 Pentecost, or man restored, the day of, by W. Gilbank, M. A. 354
 Peter Pindar, the penitence of, by Pindaromastix, 394.—Subjects by, for painters, 506
 Peter the great, original anecdotes of, collected by M. Stæhlin, from the conversation of persons of distinction at Petersburg and Moscow, 419
 Peyssonel, M. de, examination by, of Volney's considerations on the present war with the Turks: a foreign article, printed at Paris, 217
 Phaseolus, a new species of, discovered by Moraney, 550
 Philotoxites of Arden, a Latin poem, with two English translations, the one in blank verse, the other in rhyme, 200
 Physicians, report from the committee appointed to examine the, who had attended the king during his illness, 74
 The Pityocampasis, or caterpillar of the pine-tree, described, as to its manner of life, and other particulars, 544.—Is the bombix pityocampa of Fabricius, and greatly resembles the processionary caterpillar of the oak, *ibid.*
 Plague, observations relative to the history and cure of the, by W. Henderson, M. D. 446

I N D E X.

- Plantarum Icones, hactenus ineditæ, ple-
rumque ad plantas in herbario Linnaeano
conservatas delineatæ. Auctore Jacobo
Edvardo Smith, Fasciculus I. Folio.* 513
- Plants, classifications of, some just
observations on, 467
- of the torrid zone, the pro-
spectus of a physico-æconomical
treatise of the, 549
- Poems, by John Rannie, 553
- moral and entertaining, pub-
lished for the benefit of the hospi-
tals at Gloucester and Bath, 135
- Poetry, fugitive, Bell's classical ar-
rangement of, 4 vols. 393
- Common-Prayer, the book of, and ad-
ministration of the sacraments; and
other rites and ceremonies, as re-
vised and proposed to the use of the
protestant episcopal church in the
states of New York, New Jersey,
Pennsylvania, Delaware, Mary-
land, Virginia, and South Carolina,
480
- Prince of Wales, advice humbly of-
fered to the, 70
- Principle, mistaken, on which the
commutation act was founded, ex-
planation of the, by T. B. Rous,
esq. 312
- English Prose; or a complete intro-
duction to the several parts of Eng-
lish grammar, 558
- Proclus, philosophical and mathema-
tical commentaries of, on the first
book of Euclid's elements: also,
his theological elements, set forth,
by T. Taylor, 241
- Prussian treaty, considerations on the,
with an authentic copy of it, 388
- Psalms, book of truly Christian, &c.
by Lewis Bruen, 555

Q.

- Question, solved, or the right of
the prince of Wales to be
sole, unlimited, and immediate re-
gent, demonstrated from the nature
of the constitution, and the law of
the land, 72
- detached hints on the, in
its present posture, 73
- The amiable Quixote: or the enthu-
siasm of friendship, a novel, 4 vols.*
77

R.

- Reading made easy: consisting of
a variety of useful lessons, by
W. Rusher, 560

- Recluse, the, a novel, by Miss Fin-
glass, 2 vols. 153
- Recovery of the apparently dead, es-
say on the 105
- of his majesty, verses on,
by Samuel Hayes, A. M. 469
- ode on, by the author of
sympathy and humanity, 554
- Reformation, political, on a large
scale, or a plan of an house of com-
mons, 310
- Regency, three letters on the question
of, addressed to the people of Eng-
land, by C. Lofft, 71
- dialogue on the, between
Freeman and John Bull, 73
- limitation of, 74.—Second
letter from an Irish gentleman in
London to the people of Ireland on
the, 158.—Vindication of the pro-
ceedings of the lords and commons
upon the, by M. Dawes, esq. *ibid.*
- Address to the prince of Wales,
upon the report of his intention to
refuse it, *ibid.*
- legal considerations on the,
as far as it regards Ireland, 311
- Regent, the powers of a, constitu-
tionally considered 72
- Religion of nature, apology for pro-
fessing the, in the 18th century of
the Christian æra, addressed to the
rev. Dr. Watson, lord bishop of
Landaff, 477
- history of the effects of, on
mankind, in countries, ancient and
modern, barbarous and civilized,
by the rev. E. Ryan, B. D. 116
- Removâls of two noble personages
from their respective employments,
strictures on the late, 388
- The Revelations explained throughout,
with keys, illustrations, notes, and
comments, by W. Cooke, Greek
professor in the university of Cam-
bridge,* 194
- Revenue, public, of the British em-
pire, appendix. by sir John Sinclair,
bart. to the history of the, 295
- Reveries, philosophical, political, and
military, 159
- Review, summary of the laws of the
united states of North America, the
British provinces, and West Indies,
with observations, precedents, &c.
75
- political, short and impartial,
of the year 1788. 158
- Rhythm of the Greeks, book extraor-
dinary on the, for the use of the
young gentlemen educated in Bra-
zen-

I N D E X.

Wren-Nose college, Oxford, by the
lord bishop of Chester, 433
Roman empire, history of the decline
and fall of, by E. Gibbon, esq.
continued, 95.—Concluded, 175.—
Critique on the work, 178
Rose tremiere (alcea rosa), M. Volta's ac-
count of the fructification of the, 545
The Route; or, the sketch of modern
life.—From an academic in the me-
tropolis to his friend in the coun-
try, 553
Royal society of London, philosophical
transactions of the, vol. LXXVIII.
part II. for the year 1788. 56

S.

Sacred extracts, 358
Salamander, real, imagined to
have been seen by M. Polhonier,
in the island of Rhodes, 463
Sailors, aërial, memoirs for directing,
143
Salts, processes performed on, 411
Scepticism, essay on the folly of, 555
School-boy, history of a, with other
pieces, 558
Scolopendra polype, curious account
of the, discovered by M. Badier in
some bladder-oar-weed at Guada-
loupe, 463.—Other observations up-
on the polypi, 464
Scriptural principles, attempt to ex-
plain some of the thirty-nine arti-
cles in that light, by a minister of
the church of England, 476
Selborne, in the county of Southamp-
ton, history and antiquities of, 35
Sermons, a course of, preached by the
rev. R. Shepherd before the univer-
sity of Oxford, at Bampton's lec-
ture, 50.—On various interesting
subjects, by the rev. J. Morton, 1101
—Two, setting forth the final resto-
ration of all mankind, by F. Lei-
cester, 149.—Four select evangeli-
cal, by G. Nicholson, ib.—Several,
adapted to the family and closet, by
G. Lambert, ibid. On the African
slave-trade, by J. Doré, 150.—
Preached before the gentlemen edu-
cated at the free grammar-school of
Exeter, ibid.—On the principles of
the Revolution, by R. Stevenson,
ibid.—Twenty-eight. miscellaneous,
by a clergyman of the church of
England, 190.—On the slave-trade,
by J. Bidlake, A. B. 231.—By a
youth, on the necessity of the divine

illumination in order to spiritual
fervour, 232.—Two, on the sacra-
ment of the Lord's supper, before
the university of Oxford, by the
bishop of Chester, 255.—By J. Beat-
son, on the slave-trade, 315.—By
the bishop of Lincoln, on the anni-
versary of king Charles's martyr-
dom, ibid.—By the rev. W. Agut-
ter, M. A. on the death of the ce-
lebrated Mr. John Henderson, 516.
—On the injustice and cruelty of
the slave-trade, by Herbert Mends,
390.—Injustice of the same, proved
from principles of natural equality,
ib.—On the celebration of the 100th
anniversary of the Revolution, by
W. Wood, 391.—Practical, never
before published, by the rev. J. Ed-
wards, 392
Sermon, preached in the cathedral
church of Ely, on Thursday, April
23, 1789, being the day appointed
for a general thanksgiving to Al-
mighty God for his majesty's happy
recovery, by Cæsar Morgan, M. A.
473. — Thanksgiving — — —
occasioned by the happy recovery
of his present majesty, from his
late dangerous indisposition; preach-
ed on April 23, 1789, before the
society of protestant dissenters at
Mansfield, by Samuel Catlow, ibid.
Servants of the crown in the house
of commons of Ireland, advice to
the, containing advice to a lord
lieutenant's secretary, 473
Sium latifolium, observations on, by
M. Dorthes, 548
Slavery and the slave-trade, consider-
ations on the abolition of, on the
grounds of natural, religious, and
political duty, 452
— the sorrows of, a poem, by
the rev. J. Jamieson, M. A. F. A. S. S.
468
Slave-trade, two reports from the
committee of the hon. house of as-
sembly of Jamaica, on the subject
of the, published by order of the
house of assembly, by Stephen Ful-
ler, esq. agent for Jamaica, 471.—
Cool address to the people of Eng-
land on the, by Thomas Maxwell
Adams, esq. 472.—Considerations
upon the fatal consequences of abo-
lishing the, in the present situation
of Great Britain, ibid.
The Poor soldier, an American tale,
founded on a recent fact, 470

I N D E X.

Sonnets, fourteen, elegiac and descriptive, written during a tour, 504
Stenography, or short-hand writing, essay, intended to establish a standard for an universal system of, by Samuel Taylor, 556
Strongbow, earl, or Richard de Clare, and the beautiful Geraldine, history of, 330
Struensee and Brandt, counts, authentic elucidation of the history of, and of the revolution in Denmark in 1772, 279
Substantives, French, the genders of the, alphabetically arranged according to their terminations, by B. Arleville, 478
Sufferings of Lewis de Marolles, and Isaac Le Fevre, upon the revocation of the edict of Nantz, history of the, 326
Swedish, royal academy, new transactions of the, vol. VII. for the year 1786, 68

T.

TABLES, by sir H. Englefield, F. R. S. of the apparent places of the comet of 1661, the return of which is expected in 1789, 125
 — two, mineralogical, with an explanation and index, by T. Cavallo, F. R. S. 130
The juvenile tattle, by a society of young ladies, under the tuition of Mrs. Teachwell, 560
Tauris, or the Crimea, natural history of the country of, translated from the Russian language, 373
Thalia, the banquet of: or the fashionable songsters pocket memorial, 553
The Thanksgiving-day, a poem, 469
Theory, new, of M. Lavoisier, 298
Timour, surnamed Lang, from his lameness, fame and character of, by Mr. Gibbon, 100
Herb tobacco, treatise upon the, by a gentleman of the university of Cambridge, 480
The Self-Tormentor, a novel, 554
Trade between Great Britain and Russia, view of the importance of the, by A. Brough, 154
 — new and old, principles of, compared; or a treatise on the principles of commerce between nations, with an appendix, 509
Transfiguration of Christ, essay on the, 231

The Traveller's companion; or, new itinerary of England and Wales, with part of Scotland; arranged in the manner of copper-plates, being an accurate and comprehensive view of the principal roads in Great Britain, taken from actual surveys. Illustrated with two maps. By Thomas Pride and Philip Luckombe, 477
Trial of W. Brodie and G. Smith, before the high court of justiciary, held at Edinburgh, for breaking into and robbing the general excise-office of Scotland, on the 5th of March, 1788, 558
Trinity, worship, false, of the, two addresses by Mr. Friend, for turning from it to that of one true God, 151

V.

Variety, pleasing, being a collection of original tales, comic, sentimental, and interesting, with two legendary tales, 2 vols. 79
The Vicar of Landdowne; or country quarters, a tale, by Maria Regina Dalton, 2 vols. 475
Zeluco—Views, various of human nature, taken from life and manners, foreign and domestic, 505
The Village curate, a poem, 355
Virtue, a friend to, a novel from the French, by the translator of the effects of the passions, 554
Virgil's Georgics, fourth book of, illustrated and explained, by G. Wakefield, A. B. 49
Volcano in the moon, Herschell's account of, confirmed by M. de Lande, 144
Voltaire, observations on the writings of, particularly in regard to religion, by M. Gibert, minister of the royal chapel of St. James's, 202
Vow, rash, ill effects of a, a novel, in a series of letters, 2 vols. 153
Voyage, series of adventures in the course of a, up the red-sea, on the coasts of Arabia and Egypt: and of a route through the deserts of Thebais, in the year 1777 &c. by E. Irwin, 3d edit. 2 vols. 90
 — round the world, but more particularly to the north-west coast of America, by the captains Portlock and Dixon, narrative of a, 182
Utility, practical, of K. M'Culloch's sea-compass, report of the, 560
 5 Wales,

I N D E X

W.

Wales, new South, account of the productions, inhabitants, &c. of, 336
Wallace, James, a novel, by the author of mount Henneth, Barham Downs, and of the fair Syrian, 3 vols. 76
Walker's academic speaker, formed by select parliamentary debates, orations, odes, scenes, and speeches from the best writers, with the propriety of gesture, 54
Warburton, and a Warburtonian, tracts by, not admitted into the collections of their respective works, 210

Water, &c. changes in the state of, when assuming a solid form, 140
 — new experiments on the decomposition of, 297
Watering meadows by art, advantages, and method of, as practised in the county of Gloucester, by the rev. T. Wright, 79
Water-mills, situation, construction, and calculation, necessary for, 141
Woe, the child of, by Mrs. Norman, 3 vols. 237

Z.

ZELIA, in the desert, or the Female Crusoe, a novel, 397

END OF THE SIXTY-SEVENTH VOLUME.

Water, for changes in the rate of
 when allowing a joint form, 149
 — new experiments on the decom-
 position of, 207
 Watering meadows by art, advan-
 tages, and method of, as practised
 in the county of Gloucester, by the
 Rev. T. Wright, 79
 Water-mills, invention, construction,
 and calculation, necessary for, 141
 Woe, the child of, by Miss Norman,
 237

N

Nilia, in the desert, or the Fe-
 male Crusoe, a novel, 297

W
 After new South, account of
 the production, in, 310
 See all
 Wallace, James, a novel, by the au-
 thor of Robert Hennessy, 310
 Down, and of the fair system, 3
 W
 Walker's systematic speaker, formed
 by select and judiciously selected
 orations, odd, lessons, and speeches
 from the best writers, with the pro-
 priety of getting
 Webster, and a Warringtonian,
 traits by, not admitted into the
 collection of their respective works,
 210

